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AUTHOR Upshur, Bernard
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ABSTRACT

The influence of special vs. traditional class placement on 43 maladjusted junior high students was investigated. Ss were either enrolled in a self-contained setting (Satellite Program) or in a traditional departmentalized program. Among tests administered to Ss were the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS), the Metropolitan Achievement Test, and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. In addition, attendance data was analyzed. Findings indicated that as measured on the CSCS, control group Ss had more positive concepts of their behavior than Ss in the Satellite Program. No statistically significant difference was found in reading gains by the two groups, and no difference in attendance patterns. Findings led to three recommendations, including the encouragement of special class assignments for disruptive students. (CL)

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ANALYSIS OF SATELLITE PROGRAM FOR
DISRUPTIVE CHILDREN

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BERNARD UPSHUR

275 Bay 37th Street
Brooklyn, N. Y. 11214

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

One of the most important questions posed by educators today is that of how to cope with widespread student personality dysfunction and academic underachievement? A Richards and Clark (1967) survey estimated that from 5 to 10% of the school population, which might number over three million by the year 1975, would make up this body of students. Of concern here are the students who manifest overt nonconforming personality patterns and low academic ability. This group does not include students with severe emotional disorders, orthopedic impairment, and acute mental retardation.

Within the context of a broader definition of special education (Reynolds and Balow, 1974), self-contained classrooms and resource centers have mushroomed nationwide. This proclivity towards establishing special facilities for troubled youngsters outside the regular classroom has raised several serious questions. Since such practices constitute a form of ability grouping, current discourse has centered around the question of whether self-contained classrooms encourage counter productive labelling and engender a deleterious effect upon the self-concept and ego development of problem children (Vogel, 1973; and Koppitz, 1973)? Or, does special and separate facilities for children with school adjustment problems, in fact, contribute a great deal towards

positively modifying self-concept and academic performance.

Amid this continuing debate centered around the advantages and disadvantages of special class placement, a school district, located in a major northeastern metropolis, has implemented a special education program. The Satellite Program, as it is called, segregates problem children from the mainstream. The Satellite Program was compared to a program where control group students were integrated into the mainstream.

Statement of the Problem

The present research was to determine whether the Satellite Program or the traditional program was more effective in meeting student academic and personality needs. Several pertinent questions were explored.

1. Would there be a significant difference in the self-concept scores of Satellite students as compared to self-concept scores of the traditionally placed control group?

2. Would there be a significant difference between the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) reading scores of Satellite students as compared to MAT reading scores of the traditionally placed control group?

3. Would there be a significant difference between the attendance pattern of traditionally placed control group in comparison with the attendance pattern of Satellite students?

4. Would there be a significant relationship between the self-concept scores of Satellite students and the self-concept and personality scores of their teachers?

Hypotheses

Major hypotheses are stated to test group differences on the three criterion variables; achievement, self-concept, and attendance. Stated in the null form, the hypotheses are as following:

1. There will be no significant difference between the self-concept scores of Satellite students in comparison with self-concept scores of control group subjects.

This is really a succinct expression of a major hypothesis and six sub-hypotheses which consist of a Global score and the following factor scores: Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Popularity, Anxiety, Physical Appearance and Attributes, and Happiness and Satisfaction.

2. There will be no significant difference between the attendance pattern of Satellite students in comparison with the attendance pattern of controls.
3. There will be no significant difference between reading scores of Satellite students in comparison with reading scores of control group students.

4. There will be no significant relationship between Satellite student group self-concept scores and those of their teachers.

Definition of Terms

Control group--Refers to junior high school youngsters evidencing adjustment problems who were enrolled in a traditional program at one of the four junior high schools used in the study.

Experimental group--Refers to the students evidencing school adjustment problems who were enrolled in a self-contained program (Satellite Program) at one of the four junior high schools used in the study.

Mainstream--Refers to students in a departmentalized junior high school program where students attended traditional classes.

Reading ability--Refers to the Total Reading scores made by subjects on the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT).

Satellite Program--Refers to the self-contained program in which the experimental subjects were enrolled during the treatment period.

Self-concept (student)--Refers to the Global (composite) score made by children on the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS).

The six factor scores of the CSCS are interpreted as follows:

Factor I (Behavior)--An indication of how one views oneself with respect to conduct, obedience at home, and trustworthiness.

Factor II (Intellectual and School Status)--Is not a quantitative index of actual intellectual ability, but rather, an estimate of one's perception of one's mental and leadership abilities.

Factor III (Physical Appearance and Attribute)--How one sees oneself physically. It includes the subject's perception of himself as a "doer" in games and sports and in terms of his physical attractiveness.

Factor IV (Anxiety)--An estimate of the general level of nervousness, fear, and worry.

Factor V (Popularity)--An indication of perceived status and worth among peers.

Factor VI (Happiness and Satisfaction)--Is a general level of contentment and self-satisfaction.

Self-concept (teacher)--Refers to the Total Positive score made by teachers on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS).

The following factor scores of the TSCS were used in an analysis of the data:

Total P Score--Reflects the overall level of self-esteem.

Row 1 P Score--The individual describes what he is as he sees himself.

Row 2 P Score--Reflects the level of self-satisfaction

or self-acceptance.

Row 3 P Score--Behavior--A measurement of the individual's perception of his own behavior or the way he functions.

Column A--Physical Self--The individual presents his view of his body, his state of health, his physical appearance, skills, and sexuality.

Column B--Moral-Ethical Self--Describes moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

Column C--Personal Self--One's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body or relationships to others.

Column D--Family Self--Refers to the individual's perceptions of self in reference to his relations to his most immediate circle of associates.

Column E--Social Self--Reflects the person's perception of his adequacy in social interaction with people in general.

Total Variability Score (V)--Total amount of variability for the entire record. High scores mean that a person's self-concept is so variable from one area to another as to reflect little unity or integration.

Column Total V--A measurement and summary of variability within the columns.

Row Total V--The sum of the variation across the rows.

Net Conflict Score--Contradiction between the various scores which represents a measure of acquiescence and denial, which is the opposite of acquiescence.

Total Conflict Scores--The total of Positive Net conflict in addition to the net or directional amount of conflict.

The Empirical Scales--These scales differentiate one group from all other groups as follows:

The Defensive Positive Scale (DP)

The General Maladjustment Scale (GM)

The Personality Disorder Scale (PD)

The Neurosis Scale (N)

The Personality Integration Scale (PI)

Streaming--Refers to the stratification of students according to ability.

Traditional program--Refers to a departmentalized junior high school program.

Significance of the Problem

It is often recognized that the aggressive-disruptive student suffers greatly as a result of his acting-out behavior. His social alienation may, in later life, lead to delinquency and crime. Further, his classmates suffer serious disadvantages as a result of his unsettling influence. Since so little is known about how to cope with the day-to-day problems of the chronic disrupter, any gains made in this area

will have broad implications for students, parents, educators, and society in general.

This study compared the Satellite Program, a self-contained program, with a traditional program. If one or the other was found to be superior in promoting positive self-concept and increasing reading proficiency, the study could serve as a guide to future educational ventures.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study was limited in the following ways:

Tests of personality were administered during the experiment. Since there has been much semantic confusion surrounding the use of personality descriptors, interpretation of the data yielded by such tests must be made with caution.

Subjects were limited to students who manifested overt behavioral problems and attended one of four junior high schools used in the study.

Further, many of the subjects selected to participate in the program were potential truants; it is possible that this could affect the availability of subjects for testing and treatment and would naturally further limit the extent to which the findings could be generalized.

Finally, parental consent was needed before a student could participate in the research project. Only those students who were granted permission participated. There was no way to determine if those participants were significantly different from nonparticipants on the criterion variables.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter has been divided into the following sections: (a) personality theory, (b) correlates of self-concept, (c) personality factors associated with problem behavior in school, (d) the psychological implications of special class placement and streaming, and (e) reading research.

Current Personality Theory

Self-concept theory. In recent years, not only in psychoanalysis, but most other theories of personality have converged upon the concept of the self as the fundamental focus of personality (Patterson, 1961). Patterson pointed out that this preoccupation with the phenomenological self marks a return to the roots of psychology which was originally defined as a study of the soul.

The earliest formulation of a functional theory of self was made by Rogers (1947). The self-concept was said to be an important determinate of behavior. Rogers stated that a feeling of adequacy is basic to psychological adjustment. Also, he postulated that the absence of threat is essential to the development of an adequate self-concept and necessary as a condition for positive change in the self-concept.

Patterson, elaborating on recent Rogerian theory, stated that, "...Once the self has developed, it becomes the center about which all experience is organized" (p. 15).

Experiences are perceived and interpreted in relationship to one's perceived self. Psychological tension or maladjusted behavior results when experiences are inconsistent with self-concept. Such experiences may be perceived as threatening.

Summarizing on the subject, Patterson listed several central ideas related to Rogerian theory: (a) Man lives in a phenomenological or subject world. (b) As one becomes actualized, the self becomes more pronounced through interaction with the social environment. (c) The self-concept is more important than the "real" self as it is the organized perception of self. (d) The self-concept governs the significant responses to environment. (e) A need for positive self-regard develops with the self-concept. (f) Positive self-regard or self-esteem is a need which is learned through internalization or introjection of experiences of positive regard by others, or, alternatively, may be a function of the self-actualizing tendency, and (g) positive self-regard depends on an evaluation of behavior by others, therefore, discrepancies may develop between the needs of the organism and the needs of the self-concept for positive self-regard.

Psychodynamics of Pubescence. The present study is concerned primarily with personality adaptation to environment during adolescence. Therefore, a brief recapitulation of the adolescent psychodynamic phase of development follows. Psychologically, changes at the adolescent stage of develop-

ment are marked by the acquisition of adult size and secondary sex characteristics. Advances in social status and peer relations become extremely important. ²during this transitional period, the role of the child in the parental family changes to that of an adult. According to Long, Henderson, & Zilles (1967), this may give rise to problems of self-identity. They asserted, in relations to adolescence that, "New patterns of identification with parents, teachers, and peers may demand an altered conception of the self and social world" (p. 210).

Blos (1962) articulated the Freudian views of psychic changes that delineate the adolescent stage of ego and super-ego formation. At puberty, an upsurge of libidinal drive ensues after remaining dormant throughout the latency period of psychosexual development. This phase, which is the precursor to the genital stage ¹of adult psychosexuality, is characteristic by the organism's attempts at resolving primary fixations. Namely, the oedipal fixation is reinstituted from the pre-latency period. this confrontation leads to ambivalent bisexual leanings and over taxes the ego in its efforts to suppress libidinal hyperactivity. The ego is left with a void that it strives to fill by deflecting the libido inward in narcissistic self-aggrandizement. The weakened ego no longer maintains a firm grip on the external world.

The struggle with a relentless excessively energized libido creates difficulties for the ego in performing its primary function of mediating id and superego activities.

In the instance of a normal development, the ego eventually resolves its phase-specific conflict through adaptive measures such as reasserting its hold on the "real" world by focusing the libido upon an external love object. Such is the nature of teenage infatuations. Oedipal or electra strivings are either dissipated or relegated to the subconscious. These adaptive measures result in a consolidation of the various ego functions into a cohesive "oneness." This psychic growth process engenders a more pronounced self-identity and a less distorted view of the external world. Thus, one comes to possess a more circumscribed view of the self in relation to his social environment.

In the case of an aborted adolescence, the ego may resort to regressive or repressive tactics in an effort to synthesize ego functionings. These psychogenic maneuvers often precipitate psychotic or neurotic pathological reactions. In the case of the psychotic, there is a breakdown in the connecting link between reality and fantasy while in a neurotic adaptation, the organism seeks to revert to an earlier more primitive state of ego development. These ethological and etiological theories derived through the psychoanalytic approach of Freud have been somewhat confirmed by an analysis of Q-data (data from questionnaires).

Evidence of a higher organization of the psychodynamic process, the self-concept, has been extrapolated from psychometric instruments aimed at quantifying personality data.

Generally speaking, findings related to the self-image tend to support the contention that adolescence marks a period when the organism is besieged by psychic conflict while the self-concept is not yet well differentiated. Pitts (1972), reporting on research using the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS), indicated that data from studies on junior high school age subjects can generally be characterized as conflict ridden. Compared to the norm group of TSCS respondents, adolescents displayed a high True/False Ratio (a measure of inconsistency in self-reporting). They also had other elevated conflict scores and their Total Positive Scores were usually below average. Scores on the Empirical Scale (actual measure of psychological adjustment) were generally deviant. More specifically, the General Maladjustment factor score and others were unusually high. As a result of the creation of psychometric scales such as the TSCS, measures of large samples across a broad spectrum is made possible. It is expected that this will encourage more research dealing with the age disparity in personality dynamics and self-concept reporting. Perhaps an even clearer picture of the functioning of the human organism during puberty will soon emerge.

Correlates of Self-Concept

Familial relations and "significant others." Researchers have, for the most part, confirmed the belief that familial relations play an extremely important role in self-concept

formation.

In a four-year study, Cox (1966), using the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS), found that 72% of the predicted variance in self-concept scores was associated with child-rearing practices.

Other significant relations were discovered by Thomas (1967) in an investigation using seventh grade students in Utah. He found significant correlations between self-esteem and perceived parental acceptance for boys as well as girls. However, for the girls with educated fathers, there was no significant relationship evident for maternal and paternal acceptance. When the father had little education, self-esteem and maternal acceptance were significantly correlated for boys and girls ($r = .51$ and $r = .58$ respectively). This was considerably less true for paternal acceptance. The sample was rather small, so replication is needed to substantiate these findings.

Miller (1970) in a study with college males found a clear linear relationship between mental health and identification with parents and others. These subjects with the strongest identification with either parent, clearly had the best integrated personalities. Identification with some "significant others" besides one's parents showed the same pattern.

James (1967) reported differences between the young child's perception of the father role and the father's self-role perception. There were also sex differences with boys seeing their fathers as being involved in more activities

as compared to girls.

George (1970), in dealing with parent-child relationships, found that adolescent males do not identify with fathers who have poor self-concepts. In other words, when parents do not seem to be desirable objects for identification, the likelihood that the child will choose from them as models is lessened. These findings have been substantiated by Coleman, Freeman, & Owens (1966).

Corrigan's (1970) study of American Indians revealed that although there were minor differences between tribes, the general trend was towards low self-esteem, extreme confusion, contradiction, uncertainty, and acquiescence in self-reporting. This apparently supports the widely held opinion that parents have a great impact upon the self-concepts of their children, even through adolescence and adulthood. It is current thinking, however, that the greatest influence is felt during the early stages of development.

In regard to Corrigan's study, it should be pointed out that there may be some question as to the appropriateness of the instrument used to measure self-concept. Though the CSCS has shown some consistency across diverse cultural groups, much more research is needed to determine the exact contribution that culture makes to the variance.

The influence of familial relations in personality development as reported by Curry, Manning, and Monroe (1971) presents a somewhat different picture. While previously cited

data attest to the preponderance of familial relations in personality formation, Curry et al. reported that they found few differences in the self-concept scores of students who were only children and those who were not. They also found few differences between the self-concept of those children coming from broken homes and those from intact homes. These apparently antithetic points of view may be reconcilable, however, if one focuses more closely upon the studies which have indicated that "significant others" may be substituted for parents as role models (Thomas, 1967; George, 1970; and Miller, 1970). The tendency of children to mimic the more positive role models from which they might choose could also offer some explanation for the lack of undue maladjustment manifestations in many children from problem social environments. This adaptive ego function could also explain why children from broken homes are often successful in making satisfactory psychological adjustments during adolescence.

It naturally follows that teachers could well influence the extent to which youngsters perceive themselves as being lovable, worthy, respected, and important members of their communities.

Trowbridge (1969-1970) and her colleagues in Project Impact at Des Moines showed a significant positive correlation between self-concepts of teachers and their students. And, as expected, the correlations were the greatest for teachers and students who had been together for the longest

period of time.

Findings by Kleinfeld (1972) have implications that for Blacks especially, the teacher can be a significant force in reinforcing academic self-concept.

A study by Rowson (1970) hypothesized that the self-concepts of students could be raised as a result of improved teacher self-concept. Intervention was made at the behavioral level by retraining teachers in classroom behaviors. Significant correlations were found between the self-concept scores of teachers and the scores made by their students. The Total Positive scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) were used for teachers; children's scores were taken from the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967). Significant correlations were also found between teacher Total Positive Scores and the type of thinking students were likely to engage in. Students of teachers with high self-concepts were most likely to engage in divergent and evaluative thinking and spend less time in routine, memory, or convergent thinking activities as compared to students of teachers with lower self-concepts.

These findings, however, were not upheld by Coble and Hounsell (1972). They found that biology students ignored the self-actualization of their teachers on measures of critical thinking and biology achievement. The study involved 18 biology teachers and 423 students in North Carolina schools.

The instruments used were the Nelson Biology Test, Revised Edition, the Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, Form 2m, and the Shastrom Personal Orientation Inventory. These contradictory findings of Coble and Hounsell as compared to those of Rowson may suggest a disparity between instrumentation or constitutional sample differences.

Self-concept and psychological adjustment in adolescence. The exact relationship of one's self-image to the overall personality configuration is still a subject for investigation. Rogers (1947), nevertheless, speculated that a distorted self-concept could be considered an indication of psychological maladjustment. Subsequent inquiries have indeed confirmed the existence of an empirical foundation upon which Roger's a priori remarks might rest. There is a connection between the phenomenologically derived self-evaluation and the more inferential source traits.

One of the most extensive studies in this area was conducted by Zahran (1967) to determine if there exists a clear relationship between self-concept and 130 counseling and adjustment, intellectual, personality, perceptual, social, and environmental variables. A measure of self-concept was extrapolated from a factor analysis of items from a Q-Sort, the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ), the Sentence Completion Test, and the Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI). The four self-concept variables extracted from the preceding instruments were as follows:

1. Self-ideal congruency (from Q-Sort).
2. Strength of Self-Sentiment (from HSPQ).
3. Overall personal adjustment (from Sentence Completion).
4. Healthy family relationship test (from MCI).
5. Conformity relationship test (from MCI).

The last two variables were combined together as they were derived from the same test, MCI.

On the basis of the Self-Concept Index (SCI) scores, the sample of 178 adolescents were separated into three groups. The top third of the sample scoring highest on the SCI was labelled the "positive self-concept" group (PSC). The bottom third of the sample scoring lowest on the SCI was labelled the "negative self-concept" group (NSC). The middle group comprising the rest of the sample and scoring moderately on the SCI were designated the "normal control" group (NC). Statistical analysis of the differences between the three groups on the criterion variable was made using a t test and F ratios.

The three groups were strongly differentiated on three of the MCI factors, Emotional Stability, Realism vs. Scretiveness, and Personality Adjustment vs. Personality Maladjustment. From the SCI, significant differences were found on the Emotional Stability factor. Scores from the Q-Sort distinguished the three groups on the Factor Satisfaction With Present Status vs. Eagerness for Attainment of Status. The groups also reported significantly different scores on two

HSPQ factors, Superego Strength vs. Dependency and Mental Health, and Good Adjustment vs. Anxiety. The PSC generally scored higher on the positive personality dimensions while the NSC group scored lowest as predicted.

Significant F ratios between the two extreme groups (PSC and NSC groups) were obtained on numerous personality traits such as School Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Physical Health, Home Adjustment, cognitive Clarity, Security vs. Excitability, and many other intellectual, cognitive, and social factors.

These extensive findings were, in part, upheld by Williams & Cole (1968) who confirmed a relationship between self-concept and emotional adjustment by reporting a .62 r ($p < .001$) between scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) and those on the California Test of Personality.

Self-concept and behavior. While researchers working with youngsters in behavior modification programs have reported dramatic results after a relatively short treatment period, until recently, no corresponding success had been experienced in programs designed especially to raise the self-concept (Meese, 1961; Boyle, 1967; Kuntz, 1966; Hamner, 1968; Faunce, 1967; and Davis, 1969).

Several possibilities present themselves: the first is that self-concept does not correlate highly with behavior; or it might be assumed that the favorable conduct changes

reported were of a superficial nature and did not involve any basic psychological readjustment at the source trait level; or thirdly, it could be surmised that behavior change precedes perceptual change and, in fact, the former might be instrumental in bringing about the latter. Available data, while tending to support the third hypothesis, also alludes to a fourth possibility; that of an interaction effect between behavior and self-concept. In other words, how one behaves as perceived by others will in turn influence one's perception of self. For example, if others approve of one's behavior they relate to him in a positive way; this enhances the subject's self-concept, and his improved self-concept will enable him to relate better to others and act in a more socially acceptable manner. Perhaps successful behavioral-modification techniques intervene at the behavior link in the cycle to start a chain reaction that eventually results in the general development of a more positive personality and integrated self-concept.

The work of Coopersmith (1959) may be cited as one of the earliest studies in support of this interaction theory. Scores reported by fifth and sixth grade students on the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) and Self-Esteem Behavior Rating Form (BRF) were related to self-evaluation. The BRF was predicted on the evaluation of student's behavior by teachers, principals, clinical psychologists, and evaluations and dis-

cussions with a research committee. As it turned out, in most cases, there was a marked relationship between SEI and BRF scores. Coopersmith surmised that, a person's self-evaluation usually agrees with his behavior which, on either theoretical or empirical grounds, presumably reflect that self-evaluation.

Coopersmith went on to report that for those cases where there is not an agreement between self-concept scores and behavior ratings, the findings suggested the operation of two mechanisms. In the first instance, high manifest self-evaluation is apparently a reaction against low underlying self-evaluation as a result of poor performance and status. The second case is of a low self-evaluation, despite excellent performance and high status. In spite of the obvious disparity between the two types of conditions, both cases are apparently the result of a refusal to accept the status quo and is marked by high achievement motivation and high level of anxiety.

The positive association of self-concept and behavior factors have since been confirmed by many investigators using a multiplicity of psychometric instruments and procedures. Among those who have reported positive correlations between self-concept and teacher and peer group behavior ratings are Piers (1969), Cox (1966), Smith (1967), Walsh and Maxey (1972) and Freese and West (1972).

It is likely that one's status among peers could be

reflected in the self-concept. This is consistent with Rogerian theory that the self-concept interacts with environmental feedback.

Williams and Cole (1968) found that the self-concept of a group of sixth grade students had positive correlations with several school-adjustment factors including social status among peers. Those findings have since been substantiated by Guardo (1969).

There seems to be little doubt that overt behavior is reflected in self-concept reporting. The more profound question, however, is what relationship exists between self-concept and the deep-rooted source traits? Source traits are defined here within the context of Cattell's (1972) description. These are the stable less temporal behavior parameters which many recently devised psychometric instruments are presumed to measure. Purely descriptive observable behavior represents unsynthesized manifestations of surface traits which are subject to one's mood, immediate strivings, or environmental circumstances. Such are the group ratings of behavior. On the other hand, personality factors derived from source traits, when correlated with measures of self-concept, should provide a more analytical understanding of the interrelatedness of the various levels of personality organization. The inferred dimensions of personality may or may not be evident in observable behavior, nevertheless,

source trait variables comprise the core of psychological integration and dynamic ego functions.

One of the first well conducted studies in this area was carried out by Engel (1959). The interrelationship between self-concept and the D, Pd, and K scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) were examined. The measure of self-concept was based on a Q-Sort of items relevant to adolescent self-concern. It was predicted that a change in self-concept in the positive direction would be related to improved adjustment, and a change in self-concept in the negative direction would be related to impaired adjustment. According to a statistical analysis of the data, low self-concept subjects were found to be more maladjusted as compared to high self-concept subjects over a two-year period when adjustment was measured by the Pd and D scales of the MMPI.

Positive self-concept "shifters," contrary to expectations, became more defensive in that they obtained significantly higher K scores (measure of defensiveness) on the posttest. This defensiveness in reporting is characteristic of adolescent self-reporting. It leads one to question whether or not the improved self-concepts too were a function of a more defensive position.

Williams and Cole (1968) confirmed a relationship between self-concept and emotional adjustment by reporting a .62

r ($p < .001$) between scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) and the California Test of Personality (CTP). Earlier, Bledsoe (1964) made virtually the same finding in an investigation of the relationship between self-concept and anxiety. Bledsoe used the Lipsitt's (1958) adaptation of Bill's Index of Adjustment (1951) and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (1953).

It is quite obvious, from a comprehensive review of research reports, that self-concept is highly correlated with source traits as well as the overt surface manifestations of personality.

Self-concept and critical thinking. In regard to self-concept and critical thinking, Balmick (1969) conducted a project involving 85 ninth grade students who were primarily white and middle-class. All nine Positive Scores from the TSCS were correlated with measures of critical thinking, open-mindedness, verbal aptitude, and achievement in Social Studies, Mathematics, English, and Science. Of the 99 coefficients reported, only one was significant. These results were similar to those of Meigham (1969); Herskovitz (1969); Corless (1967); Renbarger (1969); Blanchard and Reedy (1970); and Boyce (1970).

Self-concept and academic ability. The lack of academic achievement motivation proved to be a constant factor in the observable personality behavior syndrome of many subjects participating in the present study. The part that self-concept plays in academic ability, especially reading as measured by

standardized tests, is, therefore, crucial.

A noteworthy study was conducted by Dyson (1967) who administered the Index of Adjustment and Values (IAV) and the Word Rating List (WRL) to a group consisting of 567 seventh grade students. The IVA yields an index of global self-concept while the WRL was used as a measure of specific academic self-concept. Significant differences were found between high achievers and low achievers on both of the criterion measures.

Fink (1962) used a somewhat different approach to the problem. He, nevertheless, arrived at relatively the same conclusions as Dyson. A group of freshmen from a high school in California were administered a group of psychological instruments generally used in clinical situations. The instruments were the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), Bender Visual Motor Gestalt List, and data from school records. The data were presented to three judges; two school psychologists and a clinical psychologist working with children. The judges were asked, using all of the psychological data, to make a determination as to the adequacy or inadequacy of each child's self-concept. The responses were analyzed using chi-square with Yates correction. It was concluded that psychologists, using psychological instruments and being given no definition of self-concept, can make a determination of the adequacy of student self-concept. Also, self-concept

is related to the level of academic achievement.

Contradictory findings were reported by Bledsoe (1964) using a random sample of 271 fourth and sixth grade boys and girls. He found that self-concept correlated with academic achievement for boys but not for girls. An adaptation of Bill's Index of Adjustment was used as a measure of self-concept and the California Achievement Test (CAT) was used as an indication of academic achievement. Bledsoe hypothesized that the disparity between the boys and the girls could have been due to a function of motivation, since girls of ages nine to 11 are on an average more developed than boys. He also suggested that girls at this stage of social development are generally more sophisticated socially and have realized that it is often best to emphasize one's positive qualities. This was offered as an explanation for the higher self-concept scores for girls.

More recently, Frerichs (1971) reported a significant mean difference ($p < .01$) between the self-esteem scores of high grade-point-average students and low grade-point-average students in the sixth grade. Frerichs' sample was composed of 78 black inner-city youngsters. Reading level was also found to be closely associated with self-esteem. Frerichs concluded by emphasizing that teachers' marks are a constant reminder to a student of his success or failure. It was suggested that the marking practices now being employed should be reviewed.

Among other researchers who have given general support to the point of view that self-concept and academic achievement are interrelated are Cotler (1970), Jones and Grineeks (1970), Kubinie (1970), Jones and Strowig (1968), and Oakland (1969).

Self-concept and intellectual ability. At this point there seems to be no consistent pattern emerging as to the relationship between self-concept and intelligence as measured by standardized tests.

In a study by Gay (1970), 207 Negro eighth graders in Texas had self-concept scores that correlated with intelligence ($r = .45$). The TSCS and MAT were used in this study. When the total sample was subdivided by sex, the r for males was .61 and for females .30. These results are contrary to the findings of Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) who reported no significant relationship between self-concept and intelligence.

Coopersmith (1967) found that in most of his research groups, self-esteem and tested intelligence followed the same rank order. However, his low-high group (low in self-esteem and high in esteem by others) apparently ignored their high intelligence as a basis of self-evaluation. His total correlation between subjective self-esteem and intelligence was .28.

Soon after Coopersmith's study, Williams and Cole (1968) reported a correlation between self-concept and mental ability which upheld Gay's initial findings and contradicted those of Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) and Coopersmith (1967).

Pegg (1970) found that self-concept scores were positively related to intellectual efficiency and internalized locus of control only to be contradicted by Frerichs (1971). Frerichs found no significant correlations between self-concept and intellectual ability.

It is felt by this researcher that the lack of a consistent definition of intellectual ability could be responsible for the confusion. Many instruments used to measure intelligence capitalize unduly on achievement factors and academic ability. Given the strong relationship between self-concept and academic ability, the results from studies using such instruments as those contaminated with achievement variability are not surprising. A positive relationship between scores on those instruments and self-concept would naturally emerge.

Self-concept and socioeconomic status (SES). Since SES is an arbitrary concept in the United States, it is not surprising that few definitive studies of the relationship between self-concept and SES have emerged. Two such studies were reviewed, but a great many more investigations are needed in this area before any definitive position can be envisioned.

Egbert, Ballif, and Hendrix (1973) documented the findings that pre-school lower-class children have less well developed self-concepts pertaining to body image than do the pre-school middle-class children. The methodology used in this study involved having subjects identify their pictures from

among those of fellow students. The subjects were photographed in six positions. An analysis of various responses showed a significant difference at the .005 level. The ability to identify one's own picture favored the children in the middle class group.

Trowbridge (1973) conducted an experiment and found that low-socioeconomic subjects reported higher self-concepts than middle-class subjects. It is difficult to make any comparison between these two studies as Egbert et al. apparently measured only one dimension of self-concept (physical self) while Trowbridge was concerned with a global self-concept.

There does seem to be a prima facie case for SES associated self-concept differences. It, however, remains for future studies to clarify this issue.

Self-concept and sex. The distinctive psychodynamic modality of boys as compared to girls especially during adolescence is most likely reflected in the self-concept. The empirical evidence gathered over the past few years which relates to self-concept and ideal self-discrepancies seems to confirm this preponderance of sex distinctions in self-concept reporting.

McCallon (1967) yielded data that alluded to sex differences at the fifth and sixth grades in self-concept development. Boys tended to fall into the higher discrepancy group while girls were generally clustered in the median self-

ideal discrepancy group. In most cases, high discrepancies between self/ideal-self reporting is indicative of personality maladjustments. These findings are reminiscent of the observations made by Bentzen (1966) who concluded that expectations placed on boys by society in relations to girls do not allow for the slower maturation rate of boys as compared to girls of the same age group.

Ellis and Peterson (1971) reported that there were no significant differences in self-concept scores in a junior high school sample of boys and girls after one year in classes of the same sex. These findings by Ellis and Peterson suggest a rejection of the hypothesis that there are sex differences in adolescent self-concept reporting. But, based on the strength of a priori to the contrary, it might be desirable to partially replicate Ellis and Peterson's experiment with an addition of a sexually mixed control group. This type of research design would allow, to some extent, a look at the self-concept with and without the influence of opposite sex competition.

Musa and Roach (1973) found that adolescent girls are more desirous of changing their appearance than boys.

Programs aimed at improving the self-concept. The review of programs aimed at improving the self-concept revealed an assortment of studies ranging from group counseling to an arctic expedition. Compensatory education programs at the college level (Mullins and Perkins, 1973; and

revealed an assortment of studies ranging from group counseling to an arctic expedition. Compensatory education programs at the college level (Mullins and Perkins, 1973; and Olsen, 1973) have resulted in positive self-concept changes. These positive results are especially relevant since the desired self-concept changes were accomplished with subjects whose self-concepts, in comparison to those of junior high school students, are quite rigid and fixed. It makes for a very optimistic prognosis in the eventual success of programs aimed at raising the self-concepts of adolescents.

Researchers such as Arhava (1969), Hansen (1967), and Kimball and Gelso (1974) have indicated that self-concept change can be realized in relatively short treatment periods.

Sixth grade students realized a gain in self-concept as the results of a program that featured games such as College Bowl (Flower and Marston, 1972). The students played games twice a week for a period of ten weeks. The study attempted to overcome problems of academic failure by forcing an increase in the self-confidence responses which could be regularly reinforced. Improved self-confidence scores were to be significant beyond the .001 level.

A program reported by Girona (1972) was developed around the theory that interaction between the child and a significant adult is an important factor in personality formation. Institutionalized children interacted with university students

for a period of ten weeks. The range of activities covered visits to the movies, the museum, sports events, fishing, hiking, camping, and visits to the students' homes. The children's Apperception Test (TAT) and the Goodenough (a modified version) was administered to assess self-concept changes. The Weschler Intelligence Scale for children (WISC) was used to measure IQ. A sizable shift in IQ was recorded, although the gains failed to reach statistical significance. It was speculated that this might have been due to the relatively small size of the sample (21).

Hogan and Green (1971) reported several factors that may have been responsible for the failure of a teacher in-service program designed to ultimately help students gain in self-confidence through their teachers. It was expected that students taught by the teachers who took part in the program would gain in self-concept. No such self-concept gain was realized. The researchers suggested that there should have been reinforcement of the various teacher behaviors during the treatment period. This might have made a difference in the subsequent outcome.

Felker, Stanwyck, and Kay (1973) reported a similar program where the posttest scores, as in the Hogan and Green study, were in the desired direction. Though a moderate self-concept gain was evident, a relatively short treatment period (12 weeks) was cited as a probable cause as to why results failed to reach statistical significance.

Parker (1974) used the Pictorial Self-Concept Scale to evaluate self-concept gains in a contingency management program. Teachers in resource rooms gave fourth grade students daily credit on which were recorded the performance of appropriate behaviors and academic achievement on a short term basis. Punches (tokens) were administered according to each student's ability. Rewards that could be exchanged for punches were games, free time, art work, a telephone call from the principal's office, candy, and a variety of activities. Students were told of the desired behavior to receive punches. The subjects involved in this positive reinforcement program showed substantually higher mean Total and School Related Self-Concept after just eight weeks exposure to the program as compared to other matched groups of students who were not included in a contingency management program.

Studies have been recorded which utilized various forms of counseling to bring about favorable changes in self-concept and increase self-actualization.

Wechsler (1971) reported that 20 boys whose mothers participated in encounter-type group counseling were compared to a control group of boys whose mothers did not participate in counseling. Subjects were enrolled in regular fifth and sixth grades. Self-concept, self-acceptance, and perceived maternal-acceptance were assessed. Subjects in the experimental group realized an enhanced degree of self-acceptance which

may be attributed to the counseling program.

A marathon-growth group was said by Kimball and Gelso (1974) to have realized improved self-concepts. Similar findings were recorded by Leib and Snyder (1967) previously.

In a study conducted by Hansen (1967), members of the counseling treatment who perceived the other members of the group, including the counselors, as genuine, accepting, and understanding were able to realize personal growth as opposed to those who perceived the group as offering a poorer relationship.

Two studies aimed at evaluating the effects of black studies programs on blacks realized significantly positive self-concept changes (Yee and Fruth, 1971; and Roth, 1969).

Clifford and Clifford (1967) reported the effects on 36 boys of spending a month at an American Outward Bound School. The boys reported increased feelings of self-worth as a result of the experience. Payne, Drummond, and Lunghi (1970) conducted a similar experiment. They administered the Eysenck Personality Index (EPI) to a group of school-leavers who went on an arctic training expedition. The assumption was that acquired skills and overcoming demanding physical circumstances would result in a feeling of increased assurance and self-worth. Posttest scores indicated a significant rise in self-concept ($t = 2.21, p < .05$).

Fennimore (1968) asserted that students in an eight week

reading clinic lowered their ideal-self image to conform more to their self-concepts. It was interpreted that this was an indication that the students had developed a more realistic picture of their abilities. No change in self-concept was recorded. However, their self-concept scores were sufficiently high.

Ruedi and West (1973) found no important difference in students enrolled in an "open school" and students attending a traditional school on a measure of self-concept. The Mann-Whitney U comparison scale was used to make the analysis. These findings did not support the general contention that "open schools" would help better self-concepts of students.

Students who engaged in a teacher-helper program gained in self-concept ratings ($p < .01$) as compared to randomly selected students (Fullerton, 1973). The Bill's Index of Attitudes and Values was used to measure self-concept.

Summary of Research on the Self-Concept

Investigation into the self-concept has advanced at the pace at which theory formation, scientific methodology, and instrumentation refinements has permitted. Rogerian self-concept theory has served as the platform from which this investigation into the dimensions of self has been launched. The self is said to be the center around which an organism organizes experiences. These experiences are perceived and interpreted in relation to basic

psychological needs for self-regard. Maslow has been credited with formulating a scientific methodology or strategy for extracting and quantifying psychologically meaningful data from a wide range of human characteristics.

In adolescence, the self-concept may be characterized as deviant and conflict-ridden. The often traumatic psychological maturation process at puberty gives rise to a weakened ego state and engenders a less circumscribed image of self. Amidst this general background, the adolescent self-concept takes shape.

Among the social environmental factors that have been shown to correlate with self-concept are familial relations and "significant others." It is fairly conclusive at this point, that children emulate those adults within their social environment who are the most desirable role models. This has special significance for teachers whose self-concepts are often reflected in the psychological and social adjustment of their students.

The correlation which was found between teachers and peer group ratings of behavior with self-concept suggests that the way one sees himself is reflected in an overt manner. This is fertile soil for the initial identification of youngsters who might need to be referred for special help in meeting the social demands of schooling. Observable behavior may be an implicit indication of more profound maladjustments

at the source-trait level. There too, many correlations have been found between self-concept and inferred dimensions of personality such as anxiety and locus of control. And, as with observed behavior, an impaired self-concept might also be the manifestations of emotional disorder.

While it is becoming increasingly clear that a relationship between self-concept and academic ability exists, the relationship between self-concept and intelligence, critical thinking, and demographic factors such as sex and SES is at best tenuous. Reporting on the intelligence factor in self-concept has been wrought with contradiction and confusion. Sex and SES have received some quasi-interconnectedness with self-concept. Girls are generally favored over boys on the sex variable and the upper-SES groups have been known to report higher self-concept scores than lower-SES groups. There have been enough anomolous findings in both instances, however, to warrant leaving the SES and sex issues open to further enquiry

Many kinds of programs have been devised to raise the self-concept. These have included an arctic expedition, black studies, various forms of counseling, behavior modification techniques, and placement in an accelerated class. Most programs reported a modest gain in self-concept after a relatively short treatment period. A longer treatment, nevertheless, appears to be favored for affecting change in the self-concept.

Personality Factors Associated With Problem Behavior in
School

There have been myriad investigations centered around the assessment of personality variables on school adjustment. Rather than burden the reader with an enumeration of all of the recent studies, a highly selective group of studies from those reviewed is presented here.

Hughes (1968) concluded that coping strength and reading are positively associated. Using a sixth grade sample, reading coping strength was determined by the children's ability to maintain vigilance during distraction by delayed auditory feedback, thus, keeping his errors of omission, substitution, and pronunciation at a minimum.

Frost (1968) surveyed the personality patterns of boys and girls between the ages of eight and 11, who were at least two years below grade level in reading ability. The instrumentation included the Port-Cattell Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ) and the Strott Bristol Social Adjustment Guide. The students were found to be relatively unintelligent, lacking in drive, and maladjusted.

Krippner (1966) used the Holzman Inkblot Technique (HIT) to study personality factors and reading improvement. On the basis of significant findings, the author concluded that children with disordered thought processes, bizarre perceptions, and emotional disturbing fantasies, may not do well

in remedial reading until a personality change is effected. In a related study, Singer and Pittman (1965) concluded that the hysterical focus of an individual may be responsible for his inability to read due to disinterest in what is being said through the printed word and his ability and need to impose discomfort on others by his omission.

Ridding (1967) found that Eysenck's Neuroticism Scale was positively associated with over-achievement in English with girls showing more neuroticism than boys. Entwistle and Entwistle (1970) found no such relationship between neuroticism and achievement, however, they speculated that neuroticism could provide the drive for one to succeed. There was a correlation found by Entwistle and Entwistle between introversion and study habits.

Cotler & Palmer (1970) disclosed that while the academic performance of boys and girls was found to be related to anxiety levels, the nature of the interaction was somewhat different. The girls' performances of complex mazes was much less associated with social reinforcement than it was for boys. Girls were generally more sensitive and achievement oriented.

In regard to reading, Cowen, Zax, Klein, Izzo, and Trost (1965) administered the Sarason Test Anxiety Scale for Children. It was concluded, based on data from 54 boys, that anxiety is inversely related to comprehension gains,

but not to vocabulary gains.

Kimball (1974) has indicated that IQ interacted with underachievement to influence anxiety level. High IQ under-achievers were found to be higher in anxiety as compared to low IQ underachievers.

Neal (1967) suggested that low achieving students exhibited a personality pattern related to reading ability different from that of honor students. The poor readers who achieved high academically reflected a kind of "acting out neurosis" personality syndrome in terms of the MMPI. Poor readers who did not achieve well revealed a personality pattern which was interpreted as extroverted and indicative of neurotic tendencies. Better readers had tendencies towards introversion. These findings were upheld by Elliot (1972) who reported a strong relationship between reading and introversion. These conclusions have been verified by Hedley (1968); Neal (1968); and Bell (1972).

Entwistle and Welsh (1969) tested a sample of 2,538 school children between 10 and 14 years of age. Introverted boys but extroverted girls tended to be more successful academically than their peers of the opposite personality type. It was speculated that this sex disparity existed because extraverted boys more so than girls are likely to indulge in aggressive disruptive behavior in the classroom thereby affecting their academic performance negatively.

The extroverted girls, as pointed out by Entwistle and Welsh, could well be more social and avoid academic deterioration. This study seemed to suggest that the earlier findings of Cardon and Zurich (1967) were accurate.

Cotler and Palmer (1970) sought to determine if test anxiety is associated with achievement. Data on academic performance was ascertained from school records, teacher ratings, and the Iowa Basic Skills Test. The Sarason Test Anxiety Scale for Children (TASC) was used to extract the level of anxiety from fifth grade subjects. Test Anxiety correlated with the Iowa Reading - .43; Iowa Arithmetic - .36; Iowa Comprehensive - .43; Teacher's Reading - .33; and Teacher's Mathematics - .34. All of the r 's were significant beyond the .01 level.

Gozali, Cleary, Walster, and Gozali (1973), using Rotter's Internal-External Control Scale, discovered that "internals," in performing on a computer administered task, used time in a manner systematically related to item difficulty. Gozali et al. stated, in clarifying the internal vs. external concept, that,

The person at the "internal" end of the continuum perceives outcome to be a consequence of his own actions. The person at the "external" pole believes that outcomes are due to fate, and powerful others... (p. 9)

It was concluded that internals used time in a manner more appropriate to the task as compared to externals.

Oakland (1969) reported that scales of the Edwards Personality Inventory (EPI) were administered to 24 high school juniors. Underachievement correlated with 16 EPI scales for males and 10 for females. Similar findings were reported by Barton, Dielman, and Cattell (1971) and Butcher, Ainsworth, and Nesbitt (1963) using the HSPQ. Ayers and Rohr (1972) using the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) and grade-point-average, found a significant correlation between the two.

Summary on Personality Factors Related to School

There seems to be little doubt that behavior and school related factors such as academic achievement and reading are inexorably connected. A complex pattern of interaction among various psychological, social, cognitive, and demographic factors suggest that further study is needed to provide the guidance that educators and school psychologists must have in order to adequately service the needs that youngsters share. Among the specific findings reviewed here were the following:

1. Reading is positively related to coping strength.
2. Bizarre or historical thought processes may be a prime cause of underachievement in reading.
3. Neuroticism and achievement are interrelated; however, there are indications that neuroticism or anxiety influences students according to sex and according to IQ.
4. Introverted boys but extroverted girls tend to be

more successful academically when compared to their peers.

5. Internal subjects were more efficient in utilizing time related to a specific task as compared to externally oriented youngsters. There was also indication that low-socioeconomic subjects tend to be more externally oriented as compared to high-socioeconomic subjects (Battle & Rotter, 1963).

Psychological Implications of Special Class Placement

One of the most controversial questions in education is that of what type of class organization will encourage the optimum academic and psychological development of students with varied capacities and inclinations. Recent research on the topic may be said to favor some form of differential special class placement for students with a variety of emotional disorders. Others have found no significant effect of class placement on emotional development; while many oppose the concept of special class placement on ideological or political grounds.

There were no studies found which tested the effect of special class placement on the type of population used in this study. Insight into the present research problem must, therefore, be inferred from a review of vaguely related studies.

Jones (1974) investigated the effects of special class placement on retarded students. He found that the students overwhelmingly rejected special class placement but cautioned that this rejection should not be confused with

or necessarily attributed to the effects of labelling. It was pointed out that in most studies where the effects of labelling was studied, the effects of special class placement was not isolated from the effects of labelling. Jones concluded by saying that ethical and legal considerations probably argue for the, "...elimination of current labelling practices and for education of children in less stigmatizing settings" (p. 29).

Johnson (1969) accused proponents of special education in the inner cities of promoting racism through divisive practices. He argued that,

The message is clear: Special education in our inner cities suffer from obsolete, racist concepts of deviance and unjustifiable ways of cooling out children. If special education as a way of producing self-enhancement can agree to the new Black ideology and work within it, than it has a place in the new conception of education. (p. 251)

Christoplos and Renz (1969) vehemently stated that even if differential effects were found to favor special class placement, classroom practices should be altered to accommodate the deviant individual within the regular classroom rather than segregate him. They asserted that this decision is dictated by the tenets of democracy alone. On the other hand, Miller and Schoenfelder (1969), in a critique of Christoplos and Renz's point of view, accused them of ignoring the fact that special class placement is often beneficial to the "handicapped" child.

Kraft (1972), acting on the assumption that special class placement stigmatizes a child for life, postulated that,

High-level educable mentally retarded children, along with so-called functional retardates including academic underachievers, should be in regular classes. Neurological handicapped classes should be abolished. Children with emotional and behavioral problems should be in regular classes. (p. 209)

After an exhaustive review of the related literature and research, Ogletree and Ujlaki (1971) decided that special class placement militates against the social experiences and attitudes that are necessary for the development of a positive self-image. They further emphatically stated that alternative class placement is often merely an administrative expediency and thwarts the creation of genuine individualization of learning opportunities.

There are others who reject the idea of special class placement more on empirical grounds. Luchins and Luchins (1948) found evidence of an intellectual caste-system in their study of a school which stratified students according to ability. They were led to recommend heterogeneous classes, provided they are sufficiently small to permit the teacher to make provisions for adequate remedial instruction and individual guidance. The time lapse since 1948 could have significantly altered attitudes, however.

Ruedi and West (1973) indicated that the traditional school concept cannot be rejected on the grounds that it is deleterious to self-concept enhancement as compared to

a more open situation. They found no significant difference between student self-concepts in a traditional program as compared to those in an open school program.

Academic stratification, or streaming as it is called in England, has become a subject of continuing debate. Acland (1973), as others (Douglas, 1973; Verma, 1972; and Rudd, 1958), found no significant personality differences between students in streamed and non-streamed schools when personality was measured by various standardized psychometric instruments. Acland did add that in his study, the poorer students tended to improve academically while the brighter students scored relatively lower on tests of academic ability. Though this interaction effect of non-streaming was not terribly significant in the situation studied, it was speculated that in future situations, this loss of academic efficiency on the part of brighter subjects as a result of non-streaming could reach intolerable proportions.

Many proponents of traditional class placement for the emotionally maladjusted child do not simply recommend that he be placed in the regular classroom and ignored. Most advocate some supportive services while others have shown concern for the total dynamics of teaching and interpersonal relationships in a highly diversified classroom situation.

Kounin and Obradovic (1968) showed that teaching style was highly correlated with children's emotional temperament

and work habits. They concluded the following:

1. Specific teacher techniques which can be delineated, do determine how children behave in classrooms.
2. These techniques are group management techniques.
3. They have about the same effect upon emotionally disturbed children as upon non-disturbed children.

Tacit agreement was given to this position by Vogel (1973) who integrated a group of disabled children into a junior high school core program with normal children. He too emphasized the importance of a child oriented program as opposed to a subject oriented program and attributes the success of his program partially to this teaching variable. Kounin and Friesen (1966) and Bealing (1972) have confirmed how teachers' goals and organizational techniques influence what children say and do in the classroom and how these experiences effect their intellectual, social, and emotional development. This has prompted Cartwright (1973) to call for diagnostic teaching in the regular classroom where each student is subjected to a systematic analysis to determine how attempts to reach certain behavioral goals may have broken down. The teacher would then correct the original error and proceed from there.

This clamor for differentiated teaching techniques extend from the advocates of regular classroom placement to supporters of special class placement for emotionally deviant youngsters as well. Johnson (1962) stated that the lack of

pressure to meet behavioral objectives causes the student in the special classroom to achieve below his counterpart in the regular classroom. He recommended that a certain amount of stress be introduced to promote the drive and motivation required to learn. He cautioned, however, that stress must be applied selectively since it does not affect all individuals the same way.

Leton (1964) suggested deploying differential education on an experimental basis in order to devise a functional classification system for emotionally disturbed children. Since recognized personality types, at this point, are somewhat tentative, it would be difficult to effectively implement a differential special education program without the benefit of this first step. As Quay (1963) put it,

We should proceed slowly, select children carefully, group at least according to the basic withdrawal and actingout dichotomies, and structure the special class experience as primarily educational, taking advantage of what we do know about the learning characteristics of the particular kinds of emotional disturbance. (p. 30)

Quay, Morse, and Cutler (1966) endeavored to create a classification system which would facilitate special class placement according to a behavioral syndrome. Through factor analysis, they identified three factors which included many personality attributes. They suggested that a rudimentary theory can now be formulated as to the different ways to approach different children. The first dimension was composed of

aggressive, hostile, contentious behavior which has been labeled at various times, conduct disorder, unsocialized aggression, or psychopathy. The second dimension represents anxiety, withdrawn, and introverted behavior and has been labeled at various times as personality problem or neuroticism. The third dimension involves preoccupation, lack of interest, sluggishness, laziness, daydreaming, and passivity.

Smith and Arkans (1974) refuted the proponents of regular class placement who advocate such placement for severely retarded children. They emphasized that even if the regular teacher has an individualized classroom, the behavioral objectives he will be forced to set for the moderately and severely retarded children will be beyond the realm of the teacher's existing abilities and energies. This point was made in a somewhat different way by Koppitz (1972) who stated that if there was no special class placement, many of the youngsters who now benefit from special class placement would simply drop out of school.

A study by Meyerwitz (1962), nevertheless, would give cause to question the validity of Koppitz's assumptions. Meyerowitz found, to his surprise, that first grade subjects in a special program developed a more negative self-concept than they would have had they been left in a regular program.

Summary of the Review of Literature Related to Special Class Placement

Whether or not students who show deviant behavior receive

education in special classrooms could well be decided on political, social, legal, and ideological grounds as opposed to empirical grounds. This point was vividly clear from literature related to the subject. Nevertheless, most of the scientific data generally supported the contention that there were few, if any, personality differences engendered by special class placement.

Labelling of special class students by other students and teachers was found to be a factor; however, the extent to which this labelling affects the special class student is still a subject for investigation.

Most of the advocates of special class placement also recommended that there be some form of differentiated grouping according to psychological deficiency. Attempts have been made to devise a system which was said to provide the foundations for development of a functional theory, which could be used to effectively isolate personality types.

No studies were found which compared the specific types of junior high school students used in the present study according to special and traditional class placement. This paucity of investigations bearing directly on this point of inquiry increases the need for such research.

Research Related to Reading and Academic Achievement

There has been a proliferation of reading research during the past decade. Rather than burden the reader with an enumeration of the myriad studies conducted to date, a

highly selective sampling is presented.

Safer and Allen (1973) found seven factors which relates to reading disability; total IQ; auditory attention span for unrelated words; percent below reading level at time of referral (negative correlation); and history of a speech impediment. The factors were reportedly inter-related to some degree. For an example, children referred at an older age had more recorded instances of classroom misconduct. The sample consisted of children from age eight to 13. The instruments used were the Detroit Test of Learning Aptitude, the standard word list from Betts (1954), listening comprehension level was assessed by an informal method based on the book by Grady, Klapper, and Gifford (1933), WISL, Stanford-Binet, and the California Test of Mental Maturity IQ.

Cotler and Palmer (1970) examined a group of social, psychological and demographic factors generally believed to be associated with academic achievement. They used students from grades four through six of a city school district. Data was collected using the Basic Skills Test, Otis-Lennon IQ Test (1967 edition), and teacher supplied ratings of reading and arithmetic achievement. The Sarason Test Anxiety Scale for children (TASA) and "The Class Play" (Lambert and Bower, 1961) were also administered. "The Class Play" served as both a sociometric measure and self-rating. IQ, reading, and arithmetic were correlated in the 70's

which were quite substantial. Intercorrelation data between achievement scores and IQ were higher for boys than girls, but scores for both sexes were quite sufficient. Teacher estimates of achievement on a simple seven-point rating scale accounted for as much variance in the data as the Iowa Test. Intercorrelations between sociometric and self-ratings and achievement data were significant for girls but not for boys. The data suggest that girls who are the most visible in the classroom tend to have higher IQs and are higher achievers as measured by the Iowa Test and teacher ratings. This sex difference was confirmed by Anastasion (1967) although Fink (1962) had found the opposite relationship using a high school sample.

Jantz (1974) examined the effects of sex, race, socioeconomic status, and intelligence upon reading achievement test scores of sixth grade students. More than 3,000 subjects were used in the study. Socioeconomic status was determined by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) occupational prestige scale (Hodge, 1966). Sex, race, socioeconomic, and intelligence differences were found in the level of reading performance. Female students had higher mean scores than male students. White pupils had higher average test scores than nonwhite pupils. Students grouped in the high socioeconomic category scored higher on an average than students grouped in the low socioeconomic category. High IQ students tended to score higher as compared to students categorized as upper-

middle, lower-middle, and lower groups. The mean gain reading was .83 for both female and male pupils as well as the total population.

It appears that one cannot reasonably expect a year's growth in reading for a year in school for all students.

Wunderlich and Bradtmueller (1971) reported a comparison of teacher estimates of reading levels as compared to Individual Reading Placement Inventory (IRPI) scores. The IRIP is particularly appropriate for use in the junior high schools. The subjects were all sixth graders with reading achievement levels of 5.0 or below as measured by the Iowa Achievement Test. Science, reading, social studies, language arts, and mathematics teachers in a middle school were to estimate the instructional reading level for each student in the sixth grade. These 72 students were then given the IRPI to determine their instructional level. Correlation coefficients ranged from .34 to .49. Though they were statistically significant, they only accounted for from 12 to 25 percent of the variance. They were therefore considered of little practical use. Further, teachers tended to under-rate those students scoring very high and they generally overrated those students scoring very low. It, therefore, seems that teachers are only able to judge accurately the reading level of subjects who do not deviate markedly from their assigned grade level.

It has been hypothesized that a person's ability to

read effectively has a direct bearing on his ability to maintain an acceptable level of academic achievement. King, Dellande, and Walter (1969), using a sample of college students who were enrolled in a reading improvement program, observed no significant increase in their grade point averages as a result of a gain in reading proficiency. It was also suggested by Galvin and Annesley (1971) that learning problems do not disappear after treatment of emotional problems unless the learning problems receive primary classroom attention. This is a strong statement in support of the contention that to be reasonably effective, the Satellite Program must seek to affect change on both the personality variables as well as the achievement variables simultaneously.

Further, Glavin, Quay, and Werry (1971) reported that when greater emphasis was placed on academic achievement, children's academic gains, as well as their behavior, improved significantly. These results tend to refute the view that bad behavior, or conduct problems, must be changed before academic achievement can be stressed.

Jerrold, Calloway, and Gwaltney (1971) investigated the discrepancies between potential and performance. The Wechler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) was used as a measure of intellectual potential. The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and the Ammons Quick Test (QT) were also used; the Gray Oral Reading Test (GORT) and Spoeche's

Diagnostic Reading Scale (DRS). It was concluded based on data from students in grades one through ten, that great caution should be exercised in accepting test scores from either the PPVT or the QT as a full measure of a child's intellectual potential. The PPVT and the QT scores were significantly related to the WISC Verbal, Performance, and Full Scale for total sample. Discrepancies between the PPVT and the WISC were not as wide as the discrepancies between the QT and the WSIC.

Concerning the classification system for determining non-disability, disability, and seriously disabled, considerable agreement was found related to the seriously disabled. However, when using the DRS and WISC scores, three times as many subjects were placed in the disabled category as when the IRI and WISC scores were used. Again, it is highly questionable, based on these findings, whether it is wise to rigidly adhere to the practice of requiring children to read up to the grade level commensurate with their potential.

Smith (1971) conducted a study to investigate the diagnostic utility of the sensory channels (auditory and visual) of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Ability (ITPA). Data was gathered in the Cooperative Reading Project (CRP) of the Institute on Mental Retardation and Intellectual Development, George Peabody College. The program featured the Initial Teaching Alphabet (ITA) and Words in Color (WIC). Smith reported that no significant reading differences were

found between visual/auditory and control groups.

Linn, and Ryan (1968) in another study found the Multi-Sensory-Motor Method to be a superior teaching technique as compared to the traditional method of instruction. Third grade students were found to attain more in reading as well as spelling. Contrary to these findings; Buckland and Balow (1973) using first-grade subjects found no significant effect from Frostig's Visual Perceptual Training Materials. Treatment consisted of using a workbook derived from the Frostig Program for the Development of Visual Perception. The control group was not exposed to the visual material but shared in verbal discussions with the teacher via headsets connected to a tape recorder and to a common listening board. It was noted, based on individual student gains, that the visual perception worksheets might be better used for selected individual students rather than for groups of pupils who are simply low in reading readiness.

Gamsky, and Lloyd (1971) however, found the Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception (DTVP) to be useful in predicting children who will have difficulties in reading. Also, it was concluded that data from a kindergarten class indicates that the Frostig VPTP benefits children by improving their visual perceptual ability. These results indicate that the questions surrounding IQ and certain demographic factors as they relate to visual perception and reading need to be examined further.

Sullivan (1972) reported that a group of fourth through twelfth-grade students who received perceptual-motor exercises for a half hour daily did not gain in reading appreciably more than a control group that did not receive the treatment. The training was supervised by an optometrist who had considerable clinical experience in this area. Three types of exercises were used, chalk board, ocular pursuit, and sensory-motor. The chalk board exercise was aimed at helping to break restricted finger and hand movement which results in small light strokes. The ocular pursuit training attempted to improve control of eye movement and body control. Sensory-motor training included exercises in balance, laterality, and directionality.

Programs designed to enhance academic achievement. There is a growing use of paraprofessionals in the classroom. Their functions are no longer limited to clerk or aide types of duties (Fillmer, 1973). Fillmer contends that paraprofessionals can solve problems in the classroom that teachers are unable to devote time to. To achieve maximum operational efficiency in the classroom, paraprofessionals should be taught to perform professionally and competently as co-workers with professional teachers/managers. Ponch (1972) reported that paraprofessionals were used successfully to teach reading.

Dreyer (1973) was involved with a Title I pilot project which used older children to tutor younger children. A tutor worked with a child for fifteen minutes daily. A

system was devised to help the teacher supervise the tutors. The tutors' assignments, flash cards, tag board, felt pen, word lists, games, worksheets, and other tools were placed in a box. This made it easy for the tutor to pick up his box and go directly to the work area. A check list was used by the teacher to determine the necessary items that should be included. Tutors' tasks included: oral reading, flash card drill, practice relating letter name to form, practice writing letters as named (tracing, copying or recalling), and helping children to cut pictures out of catalogs and place them under correct beginning sounds. Other tasks included echoic reading, auditory discrimination practice, assisting children with practice exercises or worksheets in phonics, using text or word configuration, making flash cards of words pupils miss in oral reading, and assisting children with commercial or teacher-made games or techniques in any word recognition skills. Significantly greater gains in measured reading skills were noted in tutors and pupil program participants than in their peers at the same level of development. On a simple subject measure of tutor and pupil attitudes and self-concepts as reported by their teachers, improvement on post- over pretest was considerable.

Shaver and Nuhn (1971) also concluded, based on a study which included subjects from the seventh to tenth-grade, that tutoring has a positive impact and that tutoring can take place effectively in more economical arrangements than a

one-to-one student-tutor ratio.

Sansbury (1973) outlined a seven-step technique for teaching the use of the dictionary as a word attack skill. The program is designed to help the reading teacher analyze the steps necessary for teaching children how to use a dictionary. Desired skills and attitudes are suggested for each step which includes a knowledge of sequences of letters in the alphabet; differentiation of words with different first letters; recognition of words with the same first letters; some words from the list used in steps 2, 3, and 4; explanation of the purpose and position of guidewords in a dictionary page in terms of the use of the phonetically spelled words and diacritical markings; also, explain in terms of the multiple meanings of words. Unfortunately, the author offered no evidence to varify the effectiveness of his proposed program.

Fielder (1974) reported a full year's growth in both word recognition and comprehension as a result of an individualized reading program. The program was established to provide a flexible base upon which to build creatively with the optimum growth of each student.

Morrell (1969) cited instruction in the use of the library as being instrumental in bringing about improved academic achievement. Data revealed that 95 percent of the participants in the program increased their reading levels.

There are many unanswered questions, however, regarding the empirical nature of the facts reported.

Pendrak (1974) described an investigation centered on secondary reading laboratories. Specifically, he studied a lab where performance contracting was used as motivation. IRI was used to assess the students' greatest weaknesses. Students were then given a contract based on the diagnosis and it was emphasized that the students would be the ones who would be responsible for making them work. They gave manila folders to each student which contained their individual assignments. The instructor kept a duplicate folder to record diagnosis and remediation. Though no statistical analysis was made during the study, most students appeared to have benefitted from the program.

Glazer and Santore (1968) compared alternative reading programs; Control Reading, the Shadowscope, the Rateometer, and timed reading. Subjects were 159 ninth-grade students who scored at the fiftieth percentile or higher on the Iowa Silent Reading Test. It was concluded that, if one considers permanence of gain a paramount consideration, the Controlled Reading (guided slot) was the superior method employed. It was further stated that improvements in rate and comprehension cannot be used exclusively as a measure of reading improvement.

Further, the shift difference in the three training techniques employed lay not in their ability to accelerate rate

but the extent to which they modify performance skills. It is especially significant that Winett, Richard, and Krasner (1971) reported that even fourth-graders are capable of realizing gains in reading using a self-managed reading program. In this particular program, tokens were used as motivation.

Eberwein (1972) reported on a reading program that used flexible grouping (FGP) based upon level of reading achievement, instructional need, social and psychological needs, and considerations about group size. A three-group achievement plan (TGAP) organized children based on reading achievement alone. Pupils needs were diagnosed through the use of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, an informal reading inventory, and anecdotal records of each pupil's performance. Five weeks after instruction began, identification of significantly ignored pupils was made through the use of the Long-Jones Sociometric Test. Pupil attitude towards reading was measured by a Reading Class Attitude Inventory (RCAI). It was concluded that one method of grouping did not produce superior results over the other in terms of achievement.

Otto (1961) cites a training program which was successful in training students in the fourth- and sixth-grades to vary reading speed relative to three purposes; reading for the main idea, reading for specific facts, and reading for sequence. Older children did not conform to the desired

reading practices as readily as younger children.

Finally, it appears, based on findings by McDonald and Nache (1969); Balow (1971); and Viox (1968) that reading saturation programs can be effective in bringing about improved reading. Such programs have been cited as being useful in elementary, junior high, and secondary levels.

Summary

Several reports were found that tend to indicate a growing reliance on paraprofessionals to assume many of the classroom functions previously performed by the teacher. Emphasis was on training paraprofessionals as tutors to deal with specific learning problems of children, especially in areas such as reading and mathematics. Aides who are capable of filling a professional role in the classroom facilitates a maximum utilization of the teacher's expertise as he is able to supervise many tutors at once.

When properly supervised, students were also found to be able tutors. The practice of youth-tutoring-youth seems to benefit the tutor as well as the pupil.

Many social-psychological variables were found to correlate with academic achievement. Among those were race, sex, socioeconomic status, and obviously IQ. Self-concept and other personality differences were also found to be important factors in school success. A complex syndrome of variables appears to be emerging which determines whether a

youngster succeeds in school or is labelled an "underachiever." Perhaps one of the most important revelations is that there is a growing sentiment for a cessation of the current practice of requiring students to achieve "on grade level." Several researchers have asserted that it is unrealistic to expect youngsters to gain one year in reading for each year of schooling. This is based on the findings that there are extremely diverse personality requirements, and the questionable content validity and reliability of various placement tests. These problems make it virtually impossible to accurately determine individual expectations from year to year.

Conflicting findings were reported in regard to the usefulness of multi-sensory teaching methods. While Frostig's Visual Perceptual Training Material were found in one instance to produce superior results over a non-visual method, there were also findings which indicated no important differences. The conflict will undoubtedly be resolved through future investigations. However, for the time being, it seems safe to operate on the assumption that the Frostig materials are certainly not detrimental to student academic progress.

Other studies dealing with perceptual-motor exercises have also yielded conflicting results. As a bridge is constructed between sensory-motor theory and practice, these inconsistencies are expected too, to be resolved.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this chapter is to describe: (a) the subjects who comprise the sample; (b) the materials used; (c) the procedures followed; (d) and the statistical techniques employed in an analysis of the data.

Subjects

The subjects consisted of 43 (19 experimental and 24 control) junior high school students who displayed the symptoms of social adjustment problems. Emphasis was placed on identifying students with the following personality traits: (a) disruptive and/or severely acting-out behavior, (b) uncontrollable fighting and aggressiveness, (c) inability to relate to peers, (d) behavior dangerous to others or self, (e) and severe personality difficulties leading to learning deficiencies. The participating schools were situated in a predominately white, middle-class area of a major northeastern metropolis. In addition to the local residents, the schools also served students who were bused in from several low income areas of the city.

The ethnic composition of the group included 19 Black students, 16 white students, and 8 Puerto Rican students. The distribution of the group according to ethnicity and sex is presented in table 1. The subjects ranged in age from 13 to 16.

Table 1

Number of Subjects According to Ethnicity,
Sex, and Group

Group	Ethnicity		
	Black	White	Puerto Rican
Experimental			
Boys	6	6	3
Girls	3	0	0
Control			
Boys	7	7	3
Girls	3	3	2

N = 43

Though the students were not screened on the basis of any socioeconomic criterion, nevertheless, the sampling process was most likely predisposed towards the selection of students from homes which were relatively homogeneous on the socioeconomic continuum.

Sexton (1964) has asserted that, of students who experience some difficulty in adjusting to school, the proportions are overwhelmingly in favor of the low-income child having school associated deficiencies. This systematic bias, therefore, would be expected to establish a proclivity towards the selection of low-socioeconomic students in the sample groups.

Materials

The materials used in this study were the Piers-Harris Children's Self concept Scale (CSCS), the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS), the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT), student personal files, anecdotal records, and pupil daily attendance records.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS). This is an 80 item test with questions that children must answer "yes" or "no." The items are declarative sentences with half of them worded to indicate a negative self-concept. In addition to a Global score, CSCS yields six factor scores, Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, Popularity, and Happiness and Satisfaction.

Bentler (1972), in The Seventh Mental Measurements Year-

book, reported that the scale was standardized on 1,183 children in grades 4-12 of one Pennsylvania school district. The internal consistency of the scale ranges from .79 to .93, and retest reliability from .71 to .77. Correlates with similar instruments are reported as being in the mid-sixties. Teacher-peer validity coefficients are on the order of .40. Bentler concluded that CSCS possesses sufficient reliability and validity to be used in the present study. Since the scores on the scale tend to increase slightly with retesting, a control group was recommended. A control group was used in the present study, therefore, any error variance due to retesting was controlled.

The ultimate test of a self-concept instrument's construct validity is its ability to measure what it was specifically designed to measure. This is often no easy matter to confirm since the various dimensions of the self are inferred variables which must be studied by indirect methods. There have been many studies which seem to confirm a degree of CSCS concurrent validity through its satisfactory juxtaposition to scales which presume to measure other personality traits (i. e., SRA Junior Inventory and Lipsitt Children's Self-concept Scale).

Cox (1966), using students in a special education program, compared scores on the CSCS to scores on Lipsitt's Children's Self-Concept Scale. He found a correlation of .68 for junior high school age students. Cox also found that CSCS

scores of children in grades six to nine had a - .64 correlation with Big Problems checked on the SRA Junior Inventory. This means that there was some confirmation of the fundamental assumptions on which CSCS and similar instruments are based.

A study conducted by the Center for the Study of Education and Research for Better Schools (CSE-RBS, 1972) found that among other instruments in the same generic category of "self-esteem, and self-adjustment," CSCS, while not meeting all of the desirable criteria, was superior to the other instruments tested.

In summary, it is not surprising that CSCS scores and teacher ratings were found to be somewhat low (on the order of .40). Cookson (1973) concluded, from a study, the following:

If, for instance, one wants to find out which pupils are reliable and conscientious at their work, it seems reasonable to suppose that the children's teachers rather than the children themselves will give the more accurate picture. On the other hand, it would appear that teachers tend to be unaware of certain aspects of the personality of children--which questionnaires may reveal--as they do not manifest themselves in the classroom situation. (p. 36)

As far as construct validity and reliability are concerned, the CSCS exhibits sufficient stability to be used in the present study.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). This instrument will be used to develop profiles of Satellite teachers. A detailed description of the instrument is given above.

Reliability data are reported for all the scales of the TSCS. Reliability coefficients range from .61 to .92. The Total P reliability coefficient is an extremely high .92, Total Conflict .74, Self-Criticism .75, and True/False Ratio .82. Other evidence of reliability is found in the remarkable similarity of profile patterns found through repeated measures of the same individuals over long periods of time (Fitts, 1965).

Content validity was assured by having a group of seven clinical psychologists agree on the 90 original items of the scale as to meaning and classification according to a 3 x 5 scheme. Other validity evidence reported is its ability to discriminate between groups and its relatively high correlation with similar instruments.

The Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT). The MAT in reading is widely used in the New York City Public Schools. It is a survey instrument yielding two scores in reading ability and word knowledge, and has proven to be an extremely reliable scientific tool. Reliability for each subtest on the portion relating to reading is adequate (.79 to .96), and measures of validity have been obtained through careful study of curricula, judgement of experts, and repeated experimentation.

Guidance records, attendance data, and facilities. The treatment program took place in four public junior high schools. Rooms with special instructional equipment were made available for exclusive use by the Satellite classes. Members of the

control group attended traditional classes in those same four schools.

Traditional and Satellite programs. The Satellite Program was developed to deal with the growing problem of aggressive-disruptive behavior in the classroom. Students who met the specific criteria were placed in special classes, where they were to remain for one semester (approximately 5 months) after which, they were to be returned to their regular classes. Psychoeducational assessments aimed at identifying learning disabilities and causes of disruptive behavior were to be made. Prescriptive programs for individual students were to be worked out on the basis of these findings. During the treatment period, students were expected to make significant academic gains as well as to develop patterns of behavior more in keeping with classroom norms.

Teachers were assigned approximately 15 students each. All of the teachers were regularly licensed junior high school teachers who attended several orientation sessions before taking part in the program. The coordinator of the Satellite Program was a former guidance counselor who possessed expertise in learning disabilities. He was instrumental in assisting the teachers in diagnosing reading disabilities and developing a prescriptive program. He visited each of the Satellite classrooms on a weekly basis.

Though there were other differences in teaching methodology, the fundamental difference between the Satellite

Program and the traditional program was the limited opportunity in the Satellite for students to interact socially with a wide range of students. Satellite students were confined to a self-contained classroom for the major portion of the school day while control group subjects followed a 100% departmentalized class schedule. This offered them more opportunity to interact with other students and many types of teachers.

Each of the four Satellite classes manifested a unique overall atmosphere, though, there were many elements that they all shared. The furniture was informally arranged and a relaxed atmosphere was prevalent in the Satellite classes in contrast to the more formal atmosphere of the traditional classrooms. Control group subjects who attended the reading laboratory, however, were exposed to a room that was arranged to accommodate small group activities simultaneously. The reading facilities were also available to the Satellite students.

Instruction in the traditional program was conducted mainly through the lecture-feedback methodology. The introduction of current instructional material was left mostly to the imagination and initiative of individual teachers. The Satellite teachers were encouraged to introduce multi-media and multi-sensory materials at the appropriate point in their presentations. A limited amount of special funds were made available for the purchase of such materials.

Reading remediation was emphasized by the Satellite

Program. A paraprofessional was assigned to three of the four classes which enabled students to receive individualized instruction in areas where they may have been experiencing difficulties.

Some of the students in the Satellite Program took part in a youth-tutoring-youth program in conjunction with local elementary schools. This phase of the program, however, did not appear to have been widely implemented.

Procedures

The members of the Satellite Program were to be selected by a screening committee of the local School Board. This selection mechanism was not in evidence, however, during the year of this evaluation. Most students appeared to have been assigned to the program based on recommendations of a committee at the school level which included guidance counselors, administrators, and teachers. In order to achieve parity between the experimental and control groups, an identical selection procedure was established for the selection of the control group. All of the members had to agree on the selection of each member that took part in the study.

Initially, each Satellite student was to have a psycho-educational profile made by the learning disabilities clinic at a local hospital. Individual problems were to be identified and prescriptions recommended. This part of the program had been discontinued and the hospital disabilities clinic staff only served in an advisory capacity.

It seemed that a number of the components of the Satellite Program were discontinued as a result of a cut in the state funding. A subsequent meeting with the Director of Funded Programs confirmed this suspicion.

Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Board of Education during the month of August. Unfortunately, there was a delay in implementing the Satellite Program because of the problem with the state funding. This matter was resolved late in October and students were assigned to the program. After the control group had been selected, letters were mailed to all of the parents of students who were to take part in the study seeking permission to include their child in the research project. This was necessary as it was Board of Education policy to require such consent. This stipulation in conjunction with excessive truancy was the cause of many students not being represented in the study. About 60% of the parents responded to the affirmative. Of these, however, many of the students did not complete the program for one reason or another.

The researcher and his assistants met several times with administrators at both the district and school level to explain the proposed research and to solicit their support and professional expertise. The meetings proved very productive in that most of the administrators involved came to view the research effort as a positive endeavor. The Satellite teachers were also very helpful and generally eager to cooperate. It

was, therefore, relatively easy to establish an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect which was essential to the success of the data collection phase of the project.

Several visits were made to the Satellite and traditional classrooms to ensure that they were following the type of programs as envisioned by the researcher.

Pretests which had been scheduled for October were finally administered in January. Students were not returned to their regular classes from the Satellite classes since the program was so late getting started. No students were included in the study who were not present for all of the pre- and posttests. During late May, posttests were administered. During the testing sessions, the researcher and his assistants attempted to maintain equal amounts of contact with each group to control for any possible "halo" effect.

Three of the Satellite teachers were administered the TSCS in early June. The fourth teacher declined to participate in the study of the teachers' psychological profiles even though confidentiality was assured.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics, means and standard deviations, were computed for the two groups on all of the criterion variables. Single classification analysis of variance was computed for differences between means. Where there were significant mean differences on the pretests, analysis of covariance was

used with pretest scores being used as covariants. All computations were made using the 2040G IBM computer and related equipment.

Analysis of attendance data was made using chi-square nonparametric statistic. The t test was used to analyze differences between the Satellite groups on the criterion variables, reading and self-concept.

The .05 level of significance was chosen as the critical point at which the null hypotheses would be rejected.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of the Results of the Investigation

The present study was concerned with the effects of class placement on the self-concept development and reading achievement of behavior adjustment problem adolescents. Specific analysis of the data was aimed at answering the following questions:

1. Does special class placement for school adjustment problem students significantly promote reading achievement and enhance self-concept as compared to placement in a traditional program?

2. Does special class placement for school adjustment problem students significantly promote improved attendance as compared to placement in a traditional program?

3. Does the self-concept and psychological temperament of the teacher play an important role in self-concept development in troubled adolescents enrolled in a self-contained program?

4. Is there a relationship between the self-concept scores of Satellite students and the self-concept profiles of their teachers?

A Comparison of the Piers-Harris Global and Factor Scores
Reported by the Experimental and Control Groups

Global scores. Pre- and posttests scores on Global Self-Concept yielded no significant mean differences. Both experimental and control groups scored within the normal range as compared to the normative sample (see Tables 2, 3 and 4). Both groups gained slightly on the posttest which

Table 2
Pretest Means and Standard Deviations for
CSCS Global and Factor Scores

Factor	Experimental (N = 19)		Control (N = 24)	
	Means	SD	Means	SD
Global	50.84	8.22	55.62	11.64
Behavior (I)	11.89	3.19	13.83	1.99
Intellectual and School Status (II)	10.94	2.18	11.54	3.96
Physical Appearance (III)	7.05	2.16	7.37	2.98
Anxiety (IV)	6.74	2.33	7.70	2.69
Popularity (V)	7.89	2.17	8.79	1.55
Happiness and Satisfaction (VI)	6.78	2.76	6.70	1.76

Table 3

Posttest Means and Standard Deviations for
CSCS Global and Factor Scores

Factor	Experimental (N = 19)		Control (N = 24)	
	Means	SD	Means	SD
Global	55.16	9.79	58.54	12.69
Behavior (I)	12.32	3.43	15.08	2.34
Intellectual and School Status (II)	11.32	2.83	12.13	3.79
Physical Appearance (III)	8.16	2.87	7.29	3.30
Anxiety (IV)	7.89	2.38	8.13	2.47
Popularity (V)	9.21	2.58	8.88	2.65
Happiness and Satisfaction (VI)	7.53	1.19	6.75	2.20

Table 4
Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Global Posttest Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	121.37	121.37	
Within	41	5684.56	138.64	.875
Total	42	5805.93		

F nonsignificant at the .05 level

was characteristic of pre- and posttest scores on the CSCS. The author indicated that the scores tend to increase slightly with retesting.

Factor I (Behavior). There was a significant difference observed on the pretest in regard to the Behavior factor. Experimental group (Satellite) subjects saw themselves as having poorer conduct as compared to control group subjects. The difference was $F(1, 42) = 7.12, p < .01$. Subsequent analysis of covariance with pretest scores being used as covariants revealed that the control group scored higher than Satellite students even with this reduced sums of squares method. The difference was $F(1, 41) = 7.00, p < .05$ (for $p < .01, F = 7.13$). The disparity was, therefore, near the 99 percent confidence level (see Table 5).

Summary of Analysis of Covariance of CSCS
Factor I Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	52.00	52.00	
Within	41	311.89	7.43	7.00*
Total	42	363.89		

*F significant at the $< .05$ level.

The null hypothesis was stated that there would be no significant difference between the Factor I self-concept scores of Satellite students in comparison with control students. The null hypothesis was rejected.

There were no significant differences noted on any of the remaining five factor scores of the CSCS; Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance, Anxiety, Popularity, Happiness and Satisfaction (results are presented in Tables 6 through 10). The null hypotheses were stated that there would be no significant difference between the CSCS factor scores of Satellite students as compared to control group students. The null hypotheses in regard to CSCS Factors II

Table 6
Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Factor II Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	6.59	6.95	
Within	41	496.73	12.12	.57
Total	42	503.67		

F nonsignificant at the .05 level

Table 7
Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Factor III Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	7.95	7.95	
Within	41	417.48	10.18	.61
Total	42	425.44		

F nonsignificant at the .05 level

Table 8
Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Factor IV Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	0.56	0.56	.09
Within	41	254.41	6.20	
Table	42	254.97		

F nonsignificant at .05 level.

Table 9
Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Factor V Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	1.19	1.19	.16
Within	41	295.78	7.21	
Total	42	296.97		

F nonsignificant at the .05 level.

Table 10

Summary of Analysis of Variance of CSCS
Factor VI Scores

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	6.39	6.39	
Within	41	143.23	3.49	1.82
Total	42	149.62		

F nonsignificant at the .05 level.

through VI were accepted.

Analysis of Reading Scores

On the pretest, both groups were found to be reading well below grade level based on national norms. Posttest results revealed that both groups made enormous strides in reading as measured by the MAT Intermediate Form F (see Tables 11 and 12). There were no significant differences, however, between Satellite reading scores and those of the controls. The null hypothesis was stated that there would be no significant difference between Satellite reading scores in comparison with control group reading scores. The null hypothesis was accepted. Summary of analysis of variance for reading is presented in Table 13.

Analysis of Attendance

For the total sample ($N = 151$) the frequency of absenteeism ranged from 0 to 29 with a median of absents being recorded at 15. Subjects with 15 or more absents were, therefore, tallied in the high-absenteeism cells of the chi-square paradigm. Those absent less than 15 times during the treatment period (5 months) were tallied in the low-absenteeism cells of the chi-square paradigm. The 2×2 chi-square analysis was found to be nonsignificant at the .05 level ($\chi^2 = .30$, see Table 14).

Analysis of Satellite Teachers' Personality Profiles From the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS)

Table 11
Pretest Means, Standard Deviations, and
Grade Equivalencies for MAT Reading Scores

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Grade Equivalency
Satellite (N = 19)	36.84	14.99	4.3
Controls (N = 24)	43.70	14.39	4.9

Table 12
Posttest Means, Standard Deviations, and
Grade Equivalencies for MAT Reading Scores

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Grade Equivalency
Satellite (N = 19)	56.57	14.82	5.8
Controls (N = 24)	53.45	12.92	5.6

Table 13

Summary of Analysis of Variance of
MAT Posttest Scores*

Source	DF	SS	MS	<u>F</u>
Between	1	103.18	103.18	.52
Within	41	8184.68	199.62	
Total	42	8287.87		

F nonsignificant at .05 level.

*Note. Based on MAT raw scores.

Table 14

Chi-Square Analysis of Attendance
for Satellite and Controls

High Absentees	Low Absentees	
8	11	Satellite (N = 19)
11	13	Controls (N = 24)

$\chi^2 = .30$ nonsignificant at the .05 level.

Three of the four Satellite teachers agreed to take part in the study by completing self-concept questionnaires. A TSCS Profile of the subjects is presented in Figure 1.

The first subject is designated Ms. C. Ms. C was a warm easygoing person who was most eager to cooperate with the researchers. She was 45 years old at the time of the study. Though she had taught for many years, this was her first experience teaching school adjustment problem students in a special self-contained program. Ms. C reported a Total Positive self-concept score of 396 which was quite high at the 95th percentile mark. The Row 1 (what I am), Row 2 (how I feel about what I am), and Row 3 (what I do) scores all fell within the normal range. The Column scores were also well within the normal range, however, the Column A, Physical Self Score was well below the other Column Scores, Moral-Ethical Self, and Personal Self. The True-False Ratio (T/F) score was deviantly high indicating a weakened ego and a tendency to be easily influenced by others. The T/F Score is highly correlated with the Net Conflict Score which was a high normal. The low Physical Self score was apparently brought on by Ms. M's dissatisfaction with her obesity.

The Variability Scores were normal and the Distribution (D) score was high indicating that the subject was definite and certain in what she said about herself.

On the Empirical Scales, the Defensive-Positive Scale (DP) score was on the borderline between normal and deviant. A deviantly high DP score indicates that the subject's Total

Positive score could be inflated due to defensiveness in self-reporting. The remaining Empirical Scales were within the normal limits except for the Psychosis (PSY) Scale which was well below normal. This indicates that Ms. C had few of the attributes of a Psychotic patient in self-reporting. See Tables 15 and 16 for a summary of TSCS scores.

Mr. R was 34 years old. He seemed extremely empathetic towards his students and showed a great deal of interest in the outcome of the research project. His Total Positive score was above the 95th percentile. T/F, Conflict, Row, and Column scores were consistent with desired standards. Variability scores were very low indicating a remarkable consistency of reporting among the various dimensions of the self. The Defensive-Positive (DP) score was deviant indicating that the high Positive scores might be somewhat inflated due to defensiveness on the part of Mr. R's self-reporting. The Number of Deviant Signs (NDS), which is the single best indicator of maladjustment, was a low normal at the 50th percentile.

The third Satellite teacher, Mr. M, was 30 years old. He was a very unassuming man who showed tireless devotion to his students. He scored highest of the three teachers on the Total Positive Scale with a score of 416 at the 99th percentile. However, his deviantly high Distribution Score and Defensive-Positive Score indicated that the high Positive scores were very much a function of defensiveness in reporting. It would seem that the Personal Self Score at the 99.9th percen-

Tennessee Self Concept Scale

BY WILLIAM H. FITTS 1964

PROFILE SHEET

Clinical and Research Form
PUBLISHED BY:
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91

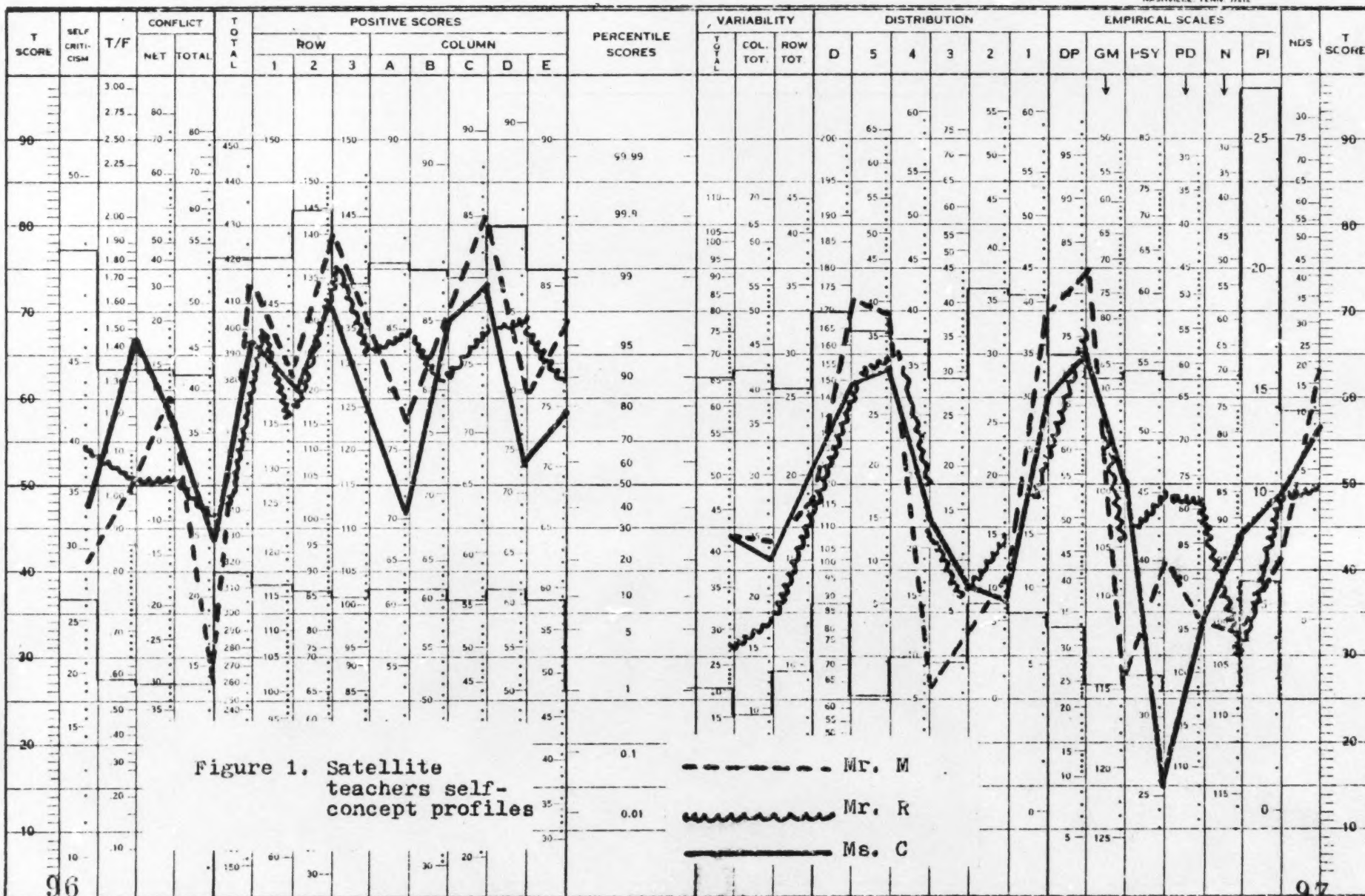


Table 15
Scores of Satellite Teachers and
Norms on TSCS

Score	Teacher			TSCS
	Ms. C	Mr. M	Mr. R	Norms
Self-Criticism	34	29	40	35.54
T/F	1.44	1.04	1.07	1.03
Net Conflict	4	8	6	-4.91
Total Conflict	24	14	26	30.10
Total Positive	396	416	406	345.57
Row 1	139	140	135	127.10
Row 2	132	139	140	103.67
Row 3	125	137	131	115.01
Col. A.	70	79	84	71.78
Col. B.	85	85	81	70.33
Col. C.	81	85	78	64.55
Col. D.	86	80	85	70.83
Col. E.	74	83	78	68.14
Total Variability	42	42	28	48.53
Col. Total V	23	24	16	29.03
Row Total V	19	18	12	19.60
D	154	174	155	120.44
5	31	40	31	18.11
4	22	9	21	24.36
3	8	4	6	18.03
2	8	9	12	18.85
1	31	38	30	20.63
DP	72	82	76	54.40
GM	99	115	104	98.80
PSY	24	40	44	46.10
PD	94	94	79	76.39
N	94	101	103	84.31

Table 16
Scores of Satellite Teachers and
Norms on TSCS

Score	Teacher			TSCS
	Ms. C	Mr. M	Mr. R	Norms
NDS	9	19	4	4.37*
PI	10	7	9	10.42

*This distribution was so skewed on the norm group that the median was used for the profile sheet as opposed to the mean.

tile. The Number of Deviant Signs (NDS) score was above average. This means that Mr. M tended to manifest symptoms of personality dysfunction in self-reporting. Nevertheless, all of Mr. M's Empirical Scale scores, designed to isolate subjects according to specific maladjustments, were very low. In view of a relatively large Number of Deviant Signs and high D and DP scores, these scales could be assessed to be spuriously low. The General Maladjustment Scale score, especially, is suspect of being deceptively low.

After the effects of treatment, Mr. M's students (N = 7) scored significantly higher on self-concept and reading as compared to the other Satellite students ($t = 3.22$, $p < .01$ and $t = 2.30$ $p < .05$ respectively). Because of the small size of the sample (N = 19), the three remaining classes were combined as one group (N = 12) to make the comparison with Mr. M's group. Standard deviation scores showed that Mr. M's group was quite homogeneous on both the self-concept and reading variables.

CSCS Global scores of Mr. M's group increased on an average of 12.86 points while the other Satellite classes combined reported a mean loss in Global self-concept of 1.5 points (see Tables 17 and 18). Based on these findings, the fourth null hypothesis of; there will be no significant relationship between the self-concept scores of Satellite students and their teachers' personality profiles is reluctantly rejected.

The fourth teacher, Mr. B, declined to participate in

Table 17
Self-Concept* Means, Standard Deviations and t-Test
for Mr. M's and Other Satellite Groups

Group	N	Means	SD	t
Mr. M's Group	7	62.71	4.46	3.22**
Other Satellite Groups	12	49.91	9.35	

*CSCS Global score

**Significant beyond the .01 level

Table 18
MAT Means, Standard Deviations, and t-Test
Mr. M's and Other Satellite Groups

Group	N	Means	SD	t
Mr. M's Group	7	66	5.04	2.30*
Other Satellite Groups	12	51	15.21	

*Significant beyond the .05 level.

the study by completing a self-concept questionnaire. Mr. B appeared to be in his early forties, was of steady temperament and manifested a very stern, near rigid, disposition. He exuded a kind of contempt for researchers as he expressed that he felt that researchers viewed his students as freaks. He was a strict disciplinarian and his class was by far the most controlled of the Satellite classes. A school aide once said that his students would never dare to misbehave even when they are not in his presence.

Mr. B was careful to comply with the Board of Education mandate authorizing the research, however, he was also very careful not to do anything above what the Board required of him to expedite the research. On one occasion he mentioned that he would write a book about his experiences with the Satellite program and felt that it would present the "real picture" of the Satellite "kids."

Mr. B was a person who seemed to have had many closing experiences in life. During the course of the study, he related several such experiences to the researcher. He talked about losing his job at the Central Board of Education due to a general reorganization of the school system. He also expressed a general malaise over the course of events in the country such as the Watergate affair. He felt disillusioned with his "leaders" and his embitterment was obvious when he retorted that, "I would'nt fill out one of those questionnaires for Jesus Christ."

This cursory description of the temperament of Mr. B

is the best that the researcher could do under the circumstances. It is highly personal and subject to experimenter bias, nevertheless, it should be viewed as an effort to place Mr. B. in his correct juxtaposition with the other Satellite teachers who responded to the questionnaire.

The size of the sample ($N = 4$) was not sufficiently large to permit a strictly controlled scientific investigation of the hypothesis relating to the relationship between student and teacher self-concepts. Anyway, it is hoped that the review as presented here and discussed further in Chapter V will be somewhat revealing.

With these thoughts in mind, there does seem to be a teacher variable operative in self-concept improvement. Mr. M's students made overwhelming gains in self-concept as well as reading in comparison with other Satellite students. This suggests a rejection of the null hypothesis of no significant difference.

Finally, even if the Satellite groups and teachers were sufficiently large to facilitate a rank-order correlation between the teachers' Positive self-concept scores and those of their students, the comparisons might not be meaningful as the teachers' Total Positive scores were shown to be contaminated with defensiveness in reporting. A more indepth interpretation of the data as attempted here should prove to be more useful in providing a basis for future investigations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The general purpose of this investigation was to ascertain the influence of special vs. traditional class placement on maladjusted junior high school students. Students exhibiting school adjustment problems were placed in a self-contained program (Satellite Program) while their counterparts were enrolled in a traditional departmentalized program. The following questions were posed:

1. Would there be a significant difference in the self-concept scores of Satellite students as compared to self-concept scores of the traditionally placed controls?
2. Would there be a significant difference between the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) reading scores of Satellite students as compared to MAT reading scores of the traditionally placed control group?
3. Would there be a significant difference between the attendance pattern of the Satellite students in comparison with the attendance pattern of the traditionally placed control group?
4. Would there be a relationship between Satellite student self-concepts and the self-concepts of their teachers?

The subjects of the study were 43 maladjusted students (19 experimental and 24 control) who were enrolled in one of four junior high schools located in a large northeastern metropolis. A pre- posttest, experimental-control group design was used. The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS) and the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) were administered early in January and again in May. Other materials used included attendance data and junior high school student personal files. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) was also administered to three of the Satellite teachers during the month of May.

Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis related to student self-concept and reading. Where there were significant initial differences, analysis of covariance was used with pretest scores being used as covariants. The .05 level of significance was chosen as the critical level for the rejection or acceptance of the null hypotheses. Chi-square was used to analyze attendance data. Teacher self-concept profiles and intragroup mean differences among Satellite classes on the self-concept variable were used to assess the teacher influence on student self-concept improvement.

Findings in regard to Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (CSCS). Of the seven null hypotheses related to the CSCS Global and factor scores, only one was rejected.

The significant F was in connection with Factor I (Behavior). Control group subjects were found to have more positive concepts of their behavior as compared to Satellite students.

Findings related to attendance data. A chi-square analysis of attendance data revealed no significant difference between the attendance pattern of the Satellite groups in comparison to the attendance pattern of the controls.

Findings related to reading achievement. There was no significant difference between Satellite student gains and those of the control group as analyzed through the use of the F ratio. There did appear to be a practical reading gain made by the Satellite students over the controls. This point will be discussed further in Chapter V.

Findings related to teacher self-concept profiles as they effect student self-concept. A significant disparity was found between the self-concept scores of the Satellite group taught by Mr. M as compared to the self-concept scores of the other Satellite groups combined. This higher self-concept of Mr. M's group was attributed to the temperament of the teacher. Mr. M's profile indicated that he reported an extremely high self-concept while his empirical scores revealed an underlying pattern of personality disorder and defensiveness.

Conclusions

The statistical difference between the Satellite and

control groups on the CSCS Behavior factor was probably due to the stigma associated with placement in the Satellite classes. The Satellite students apparently scored significantly lower compared to the control group on the pretest simply because they had been assigned to the special class several weeks before pretests were administered. The possibility of sampling bias was ruled out because posttest scores showed a further widening of the gap between the Behavior scores of the two groups. This tends to indicate that assignment to the Satellite Program was harmful to the students' perception of their behavioral selves. The stigma seemingly arose from the practice to assign students to special programs immediately after or in conjunction with a series of behavior related confrontations with school authorities.

Upshur (1975) administered the CSCS to a group of special class students who manifested the same type of personality problems as the sample group in the present study. Special class students scored significantly higher than the control group in a traditional junior high school program. These anomalous findings were interpreted as an indication that special class placement can have a positive influence on self-concept of behavior if the primary focus of the special placement is not on conduct problems per se. In other words, when students feel that they have been placed in a special class as a punitive measure, the special

class placement mitigates against their need for positive environmental feedback. Special class placement can be made under circumstances which fosters an increased sense of self-satisfaction with one's behavior.

Upshur's special class students were also found to be significantly lower on the Anxiety factor as compared to controls. This could have been motivated by a relaxing of the tension which is often brought on by misconduct related interaction with school personnel. Mere placement in a self-contained classroom automatically reduces the chances for unproductive encounters with a variety of students and school authorities.

Though the reading disparity between Satellite students was not statistically significant, there is no question of the practical significance of the mean gain (1.5 years for Satellite students and .7 year for controls). Yet, if the effects of Mr. M's class is removed, the post-test means of both the Satellite and traditional classes would be just about equal. The enormous gains in reading ability of the Satellite group may, thus, be traced to the influence of Mr. M. There would then seem to be no practical or statistical justification for the teaching of reading in special classes unless the teacher personality variable is given primary consideration.

The reading spurt of the control students somewhat diminished the otherwise significance of the Satellite Program as an instrument for the teaching of reading. Their

respectable gains on the MAT were attributed to a state-wide effort to encourage schools to raise student reading grades. A percentage of the reading gains in both the Satellite and control classes might have been due to repeated testing and/or a closer association of classroom reading exercises with MAT test items. Only a more rigidly controlled study could dispell this concern.

The attendance data suggested that of those students who were present for the pre- and posttests, there was no influence on attendance patterns that could be traced to group membership. This was a crucial point because if one group had been found to be more prone to absenteeism, this would have been a contaminating influence on all of the other variables. That is to say, if students were not present, they could hardly be expected to achieve and make adjustments normally induced by schooling.

The researcher has cited elsewhere, and is well aware of the flaws in research design which surround the evaluation of the teacher influence on Satellite students. It is hoped, however, that by focusing on the group that deviated markedly from the others, some light might be shed on the subject to guide future investigations.

Mr. M, according to his TSCS profile, had the most deviant signs of the Satellite teachers tested. His Number of Deviant Signs (NDS) score was well within the area that predicts behavior disorder with 80 percent accuracy. His

Distribution (D), Defensive-Positive (DP), and Total Conflict scores all tended to indicate a very defensive personality, which approached the point of rigidity. His Personality Integration (PI) score (a measure of the level of adjustment) was the lowest of the three teachers. It was near the 20th percentile mark on the profile sheet. On the other hand, Mr. M reported very high Positive scores, especially on the Total Positive, Self Satisfaction, and Personal Scales. The scores ranged from the 99th to the 99.9th percentile on the profile sheet. Mr. M manifested a very high self-image while the D, PD, Total Conflict, and NDS Scales revealed a serious underlying personality disturbance.

Mr. M was observed to be very quiet and gentle with his students who very rarely perturbed him no matter how disruptive or demanding they became. A great deal of emphasis was placed on scholarship. He persisted, in a quiet supportive manner, on each student participating in the assigned work. An irate student attested to this quality of Mr. M in a ^{sort} sought of indirect way. In response to the quiet persuasion of the researcher for the student to try and complete "just a few more" CSCS test items, the student exclaimed, "Oh no! Another Mr. M!"

It was the positive self-assured side of Mr. M that the students were most accustomed to seeing. His extremely defensive nature most likely prevented him from expressing the usual level of annoyance that teachers often direct towards their students who display unacceptable social

behavior. Within the context of self-concept theory, Mr. M maintained an attitude that was not threatening to the students. One of the tenets of Rogerian theory is that the absence of threat is essential to the development of an adequate self-concept and a necessary condition for positive change on the self-concept. The very positive regard which the teacher constantly demonstrated towards his students is also considered to be an important factor in the greatly improved student self-concepts.

The unusually high self-concept gains of Mr. M's students was accompanied by an equally astronomical gain in reading proficiency. They made a 2.4 years mean gain in only 5 months. This compares to a .7 year mean gain for controls and a 1.5 years mean gain for all Satellite classes combined. The preoccupation with reading caused the Satellite teachers to administer several reading tests during the treatment period in addition to the pre- and posttests administered by the researcher. This could have accounted for a practice effect even if reading scores were not inflated through specificity in teaching MAT test items.

Self-concepts were greatly improved in Mr. M's class with questionable empirical gains in reading achievement, nonetheless, it must be noted that a perceived improvement in academic ability and an atmosphere absent of threat contributed towards the significantly enhanced

self-concepts of Mr. M's students.

The researcher happened to be present when report cards were distributed to Mr. M's students. Most of them received grades of which they could be proud. The question of parity between Mr. M's marking practices and those of the other Satellite teachers is irrelevant to a consideration of the influence that grades might have had on the self-concept. It's the students' felt sense of accomplishment that is consistent with phenomenological theory. This is not to say that teachers could succeed in "faking" improved grades for students for the sole purpose of raising self-concepts. It is, however, to say that Mr. M's students apparently felt that they had made a genuine gain in reading and academic proficiency. And, this increased source of achievement motivation interacted with a heightened sense of security, self-worth, and well being to bring about dramatic results on both criterion variables; self-concept and academic ability. Further, the gains may be attributed to the unique qualities of the teacher's personality and the resultant social milieu which permeated the classroom. It is curious to note also that the students obviously responded to the teacher's manifest self-censored behavior as opposed to his more empirical less integrated personality traits.

Recommendations

As a result of the study, the following recommenda-

tions are ventured:

1. Special class assignments for disruptive-underachievers should be encouraged, providing attention to the teacher variable is given primary consideration. Also, assignments to such classes should be made at the proper time and in such a manner as not to be construed by the student as punitive.

2. Steps should be taken to develop a strategy for selecting teachers for special class assignments based on personality profiles as well as teaching abilities. With the advent of more precise psychometric instruments such as the TSCS, such a strategy seems not only desirable, but feasible. Efforts at accurately describing teacher character types should take place alongside the drive for developing adolescent symptomatology. A move forward in these areas would enhance the prospects of placing students, as well as their teachers, in the most appropriate special classrooms.

3. Reading remediation can take place in a traditional program for conduct problem adolescents even if behavior problems do not receive firsthand attention. To encourage this approach, of course, does not consider the often dire effects that the disruptive child might have on his fellow classmates. Also, this practice precludes the more dramatic results that may be realized by attempting to improve both the personality and achievement variables simultaneously.

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